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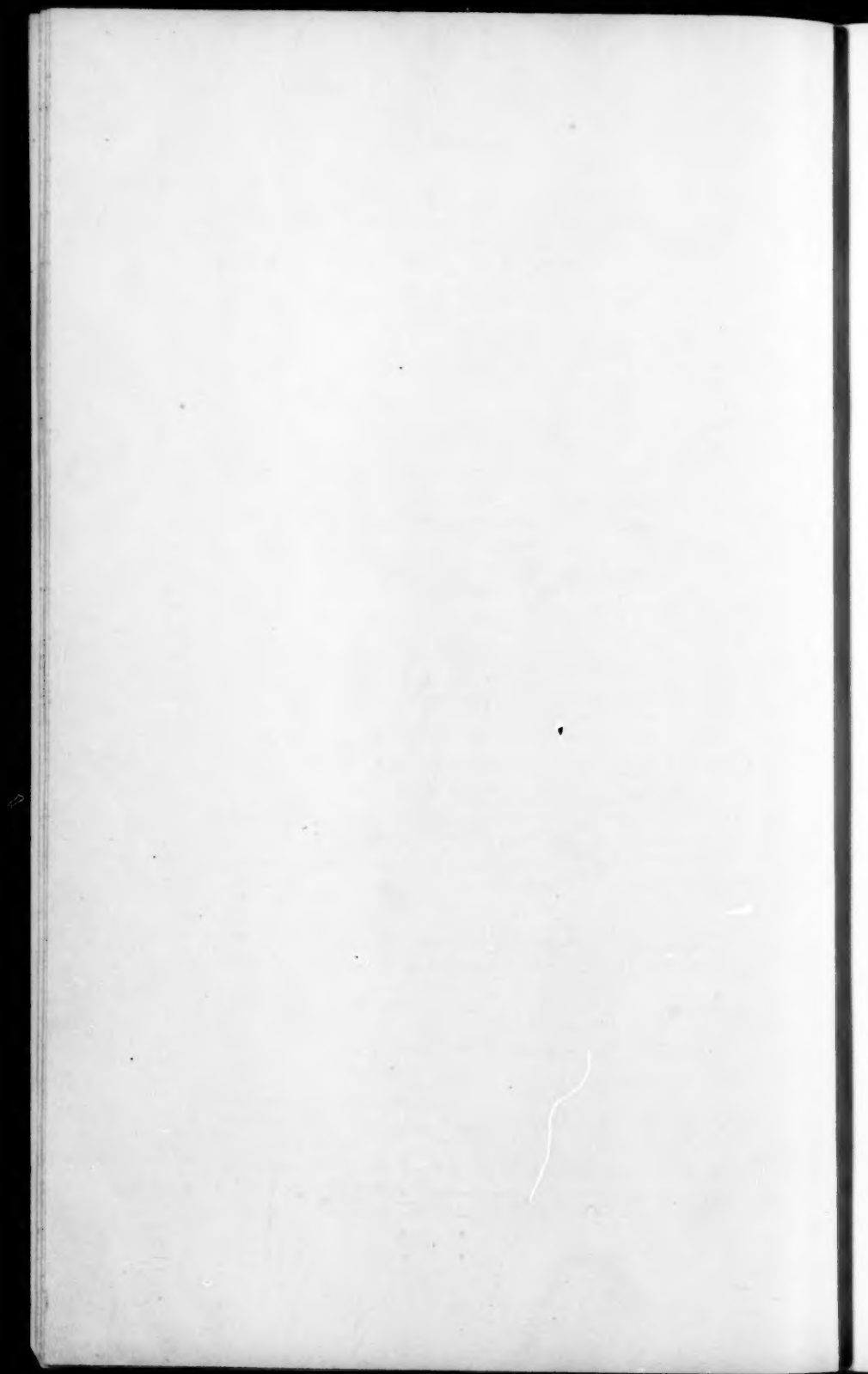
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FOR 1888.

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On the Training and Care of the Feeble-minded.

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Rev. Myron W. Reed, . . . Denver, Col.	C. S. Stebbins, . . . Omaha, Neb.
H. H. Giles, . . . Madison, Wis.	

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Joseph Nicholson,	Detroit, Mich.	F. S. Dodge,	Concord, N.H.

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C. D. Kellogg,	New York	Miss Anna Hallowell,	Philadelphia, Pa.
George B. Buzelle,	Brooklyn, N.Y.	Mrs. Catharine B. Lewis,	Buffalo, N.Y.
Rev. William Frederick Slocum, Jr.,	Baltimore, Md.		

On Reports from States.

William Howard Neff, Chairman,	Cincinnati
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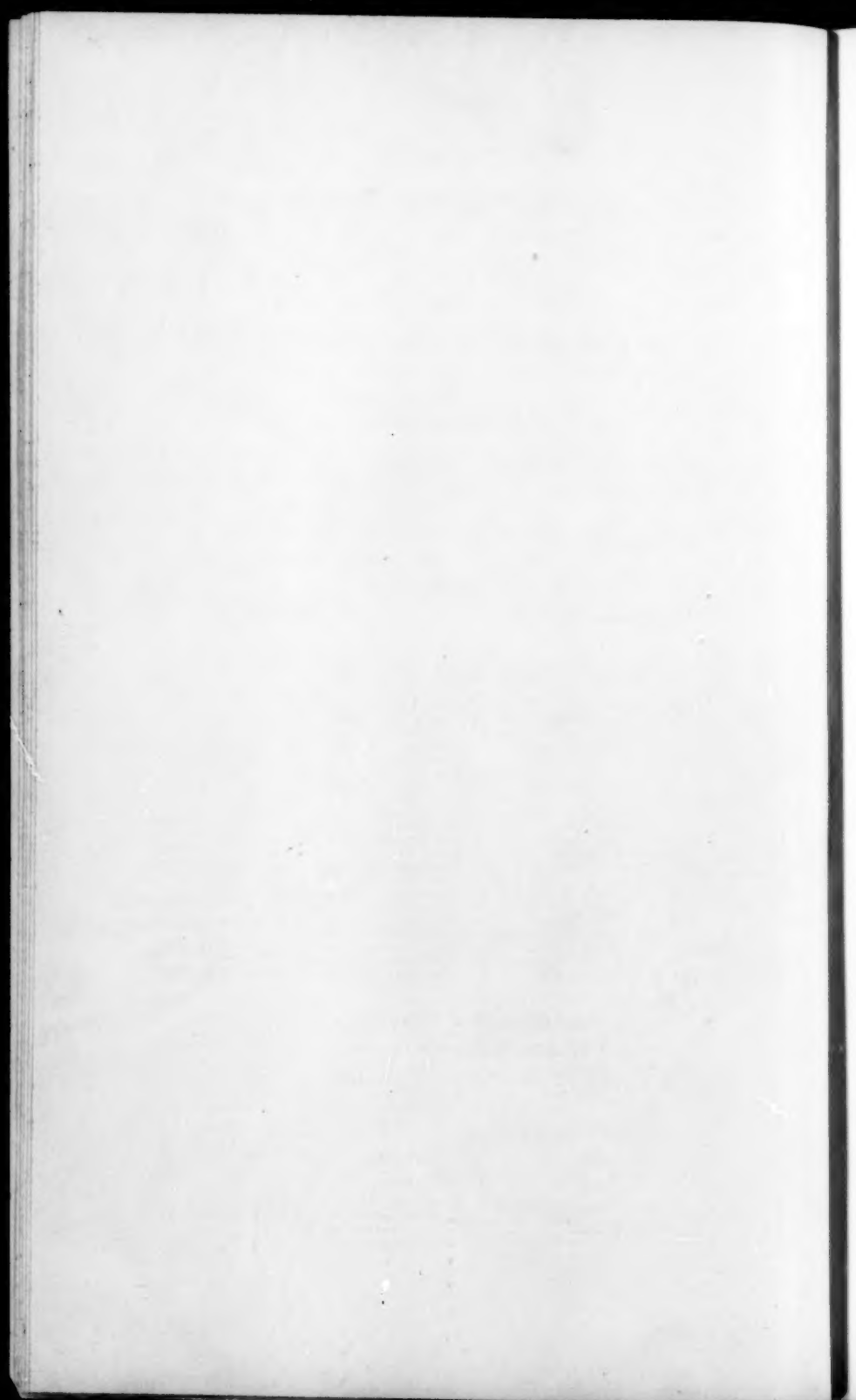
WITH THE

STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARIES.

Alabama, . . .	J. H. Johnson, M. D., Talladega.	Mississippi, . . .	Rev. Walter Hillman, Clinton.
Arkansas, . . .	A. R. Winfield, Little Rock.	Missouri, . . .	Rev. T. P. Haley, Kansas City.
California, . . .	E. T. Dooley, San Francisco.	Nebraska, . . .	J. A. Gillespie, Omaha.
Colorado, . . .	Mrs. J. S. Sperry, Pueblo.	Nevada, . . .	Mrs. C. S. Preble, Reno.
Connecticut, . . .	W. G. Fairbank, Middletown.	New Hamp., . . .	Dr. J. P. Bancroft, Concord.
Dakota, . . .	Dr. O. W. Archibald, Jam'stown.	New Jersey, . . .	M. E. Gates, New Brunswick.
Delaware, . . .	John Massey, Wilmington.	New York, . . .	Wm. R. Stewart, New York.
Dist. Columbia, . . .	Mrs. Sara A. Spencer, Wash't'n.	North Carolina, . . .	W. J. Hicks, Raleigh.
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Illinois, . . .	W. Alex. Johnson, Chicago.	Pennsylvania, . . .	Cadwalader Biddle, Philadelphia.
Indian Ter., . . .	Rev. R. W. Hill, Muskogee.	Rhode Island, . . .	Jas. M. Jendleton, Providence.
Indiana, . . .	L. A. Barnett, Danville.	South Carolina, . . .	Gen. T. J. Lipscomb, Columbia.
Iowa, . . .	Rev. S. S. Hunting, Des Moines.	Tennessee, . . .	Dr. P. D. Sims, Chattanooga.
Kansas, . . .	B. D. Eastman, M. D., Topeka.	Texas, . . .	Robert T. Hill, Austin.
Kentucky, . . .	W. H. Beckner, Winchester.	Vermont, . . .	Dr. Joseph Draper, Brattleboro.
Louisiana, . . .	P. Lane, Baton Rouge.	Virginia, . . .	Gen. S. C. Armstrong, Hampton.
Maryland, . . .	Herbert B. Adams, Baltimore.	Wash. Ter., . . .	James Wickersham, Tacoma.
Massachusetts, . . .	H. S. Shurtleff, Boston.	West Virginia, . . .	Rev. R. R. Swope, Wheeling.
Michigan, . . .	Dr. Henry B. Hurd, Pontiac.	Wisconsin, . . .	Dr. J. H. Vivian, Mineral Pnt.
Minnesota, . . .	J. D. Ludden, St. Paul.	Wyoming, . . .	Robert C. Morris, Cheyenne.

Local Committee of Arrangements.

T. Guilford Smith, Buffalo, Chairman.



I.

Opening Session.

INTRODUCTORY ADDRESSES.

OPENING REMARKS OF J. A. GILLESPIE,

CHAIRMAN OF LOCAL COMMITTEE.

Ladies and Gentlemen,—It now becomes my pleasant duty, as it is my privilege, to introduce the speakers of the evening. To the people of Omaha and of the State of Nebraska, I would say: You meet this evening a distinguished body of men and women. They come to us to do us good. They have no pet theories to advance, no selfish motives to promote. They have nothing but the broadest ideas. Upon this platform, you will find the Catholic, the Protestant, the Jew, and the Gentile,—all shades of religious and political opinions,—but all working together, shoulder to shoulder and hand to hand, in the great cause of humanity. Their platform is broad enough to take in the whole brotherhood of man. I bespeak, on the part of the Local Committee, a hearty reception to these people. They come at their own expense. They ask no favors of us. What we do for them we do as by courtesy, and what we owe to them is a hearty reception. What I mean by this is that the people should come to hear these questions discussed. They come to discuss measures to alleviate the sufferings of humanity, measures to reform the vicious and for the punishment of the criminal, and all these questions are of vital importance to the body politic. I take pleasure in introducing his Excellency, the Governor, Gen. John M. Thayer.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

BY GEN. JOHN M. THAYER, GOVERNOR OF NEBRASKA.

Mr. President, Delegates to the National Conference of Charities and Correction.—It has been my good fortune to be charged with the performance of a pleasant duty,—that of extending to you a heart-felt welcome within this State. When your association a year ago designated Nebraska as the State and this principal commercial city west of the Missouri River as the place for your gathering, our people were rejoiced,—rejoiced that the distinguished philanthropists who compose your organization were pleased to select this place, where we could have the opportunity of meeting you, that we might render a tribute of honor and respect to those who are giving a large portion of their lives to works of philanthropy, charity, kindness, and good will to all their race. We are pleased to meet you here; for we honor those who are engaged in doing good to their fellow-men,—those who are engaged here seeking to improve the condition of those of the criminal classes and devise new methods and modes of treating that most unfortunate class, those who are enduring the saddest of all earthly diseases, a disease of the mind,—and in the dispensation of charity to those who are in need of a succoring hand. Those who are thus engaged are imitating in a humble manner the example of Divinity itself, who, assuming the form of man, went about doing good, seeking out the humble and the lowly, the despised and the poor and the sinful of this world, and raising them up to a higher plane of life and making better men and better women, and giving them the assurance of hope and happiness. Those who are thus engaged are illustrating in a practical life the teachings and precepts and the spirit of Him who proclaimed the sublimest code of morals and of laws, on the Mount, or when he was teaching in the temple, or walking in the streets of the holy city, or wandering through the groves of Sharon, or resting beneath the bending palms of Palestine. He left an example for his followers to pursue of doing good to the whole race. And you, my friends, are thus engaged, trying to raise up the poor and the lowly, to reform the criminal and the vicious, and are thus exerting an influence which spreads itself through all the ramifications of society. You are thus trying to elevate the human race. I gladly welcome you here; for in the position that I occupy I more fully appreciate the labors in which you are engaged, for, having much to do with the criminal

class and with the insane, I appreciate the labors that you are performing, and I believe I shall appreciate still more the results of your deliberations and discussions here as to the best methods of treating these different classes of people.

My friends, I am glad you are here for another reason,—that you may be witnesses to the great achievements which have been brought to pass within a lifetime of one generation and a little more; for here in Nebraska thirty-three years ago there was not a sign of human habitation within all its borders. All that met the eye was a vast treeless plain and the sod unturned. To-day, all this then unpeopled wilderness of prairie has been carved into beautiful farms, occupied and cultivated by a thriving and prosperous people; these farms dotted all over with beautiful groves, planted by man's hand.

Railroads now intersect all this State. They are built so rapidly that we can hardly keep track of them. Every eight or ten miles there are thriving towns and villages, with heavenward-pointing spires of churches; and every three or four miles, a white school-house, an emblem of the progress of education. To-day, we have a State with a population of over one million people. Here has been witnessed a grand development of progress and civilization. Christianity and education have been planted here, and our charitable institutions show the influence of that education and Christianity. This development has been made, this progress has been accomplished and inspired, by Christian faith and enlightened principles of action. We are therefore pleased that you will have the opportunity of witnessing what has been accomplished. For the people here brought with them the influences which built up the Eastern States. They have carried with them the flags of Christianity and civilization throughout this State from the great Commonwealths of the Union. You may excuse a little pardonable pride on our part for calling your attention to these results.

Now, my friends, as the chief executive officer of this State, and in the name of the State and of the people, I extend to you a most hearty and cordial welcome. Welcome, thrice welcome, within our borders! May your deliberations here be such that they may exert an influence not only throughout this State, but throughout all America; and, when you go hence, may you carry with you pleasant memories,—as I know we shall retain pleasant memories and recollections of you,—and may you carry with you the consciousness of duties well performed, of good deeds done in the name of humanity and in the interest of the human race! The memory of good deeds is ever

blessed. It benefits not only those who are performing good deeds, but those who receive the benefit of them. It stops not with the present, but reaches beyond and beckons us onward. As the twilight fades away into the shadows of the evening, as the darkness of the night melts away into the light of the coming morn, so the memory of good deeds melts away into the light of heaven. Again, my friends of the Conference, I bid you a most hearty welcome.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

BY W. J. BROATCH, MAYOR OF OMAHA.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,—We feel that, in selecting Omaha as the place for holding your convention this year, you have conferred upon us a very great honor; and I, as the executive of this city, enjoy the distinction of extending to you a most cordial and hearty welcome. The name of your association denotes the object which calls you together: it is one of pure philanthropy, and, in the deepest sense, Christian. In seeking to benefit a large class of unfortunates, you do so without hope of reward in this life, save the consciousness of having carried out the injunction of the Master,—“Inasmuch as ye have done it unto one of the least of these my brethren, ye have done it unto me.”

When I learned that your convention was to assemble here, I was exceedingly gratified, because we have much to learn; and you who have been engaged in this work are qualified to instruct. We desire to study the objects of your organization, what you have accomplished and what your aims are for the future.

In looking over the roll of active members, we find names that enjoy a national reputation, names familiar in every household. Many of these are endeared to us by their successful endeavors to alleviate the suffering and misery attending our civil war and their devotion to works of mercy after peace was restored.

We have also in Omaha and the State of Nebraska many noble men and women who are untiring in the performance of good and charitable deeds. To them, this convention will be as food to the hungry: it will both stimulate and nourish.

Our city is young, but is advancing rapidly in securing the advantages which have taken a long period for older cities to acquire; and we propose to benefit by the experience of those cities, and, if possible, improve upon their systems.

We are not, however, entirely unmindful of the unfortunate, whether they be the criminal, the indigent, the imbecile, or the insane. We have very little to show you in the way of public buildings devoted to charitable objects; but we have some very worthy institutions, which, though they labor under great disadvantages, are yet doing excellent work.

Your labors here cannot be otherwise than beneficial. In the selection of St. Paul last year, and Omaha this, you have shown wisdom, for the reason that the thousands of acres near these cities, yet untilled, will in the near future support a dense population; and it is reasonable to assume that a large portion will come who will need our kindly care. You will find the people of Omaha in hearty sympathy with you in your good work; and we will hope that, as a result of your labors, our legislature will provide for a State Board of Charities.

Again allow me to express to you our gratitude and pleasure for your attendance here at this time, and the hope that your season with us may be one of interest and profit to yourselves, and that, when you leave, your minds may be filled with pleasant memories.

ADDRESS OF HON. ALVIN SAUNDERS,

EX-GOVERNOR OF NEBRASKA.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,—Our governor having tendered to you the hospitality of the whole State, and our mayor having tendered to you the hospitality of the city, I do not see that there is very much left for me to say or to offer. But I will say, if there is anything lacking or anything that you find we have forgotten, when you get to your work, ask for it. You will find that the latch-string is out, and that our people are ready to receive you kindly and generously and to give you the best treatment in their power. Some of you thought, in coming here, that this was a long way from home, that you were going out West. But we want to undeceive you, for you do not start West till you get to Omaha or the Missouri River. If you look at your maps, you will see that you are now about as far from the Pacific as from the Atlantic, from the Gulf of Mexico as from the extreme settlements of the North. So this State, being in the centre, is a very proper and appropriate place for you to commence your work; and we trust that its influence may go out like the leaven which was hid in the measure of meal.

And now, gentlemen and ladies, I want you to look round this country while you are here. We have a country that we are proud of. Here is the place where you get your pork and your beef,—a great deal of it. Here you will find a country from which comes your best corn and corn bread. So, you see, we are pretty well prepared to take care of the well; and, if you will help us to take care of those who cannot take care of themselves, you will do a good work. If I could in any way help forward the good work you are achieving, or lend assistance, or in any manner emphasize the good work your members are doing, I would be glad; and I could wish that its influence might take the wings of the morning and fly to the valleys, and from the valleys to the hills, and from the hills to the mountains, and from the mountains to the rivers, and from the rivers to the ends of the civilized world. The efforts that you are putting forth should not only apply to us here, and to the whole United States, but to the uttermost parts of the earth.

As a citizen, and in the name of our citizens, I want to say to you that I most heartily join with these other gentlemen in extending to you, each and all, a welcome to the hospitalities of our citizens.

ADDRESS OF HON. J. M. THURSTON.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,—The civilization of the nineteenth century is rapidly developing a compassionate public conscience. Almost nineteen hundred years ago, the lowly Nazarene walked the shores of Galilee, preaching peace on earth, good will to men; and ever since that time, slowly, but surely, the divine leaven of those sweet words has been purifying, developing, and moulding the human heart. Pagan civilization had no established charities. Charity is the development of the Christian religion. Prior to the era of Christ, nations and men seem to have been governed by the brute law of the survival of the fittest. Governments seem to have been instituted and maintained by the strong for the strong, and the weak went to the wall. The oppressed, the poor, the wretched, and the suffering appealed in vain to the blunted sensibilities of unregenerate man. The world was not in a condition to receive the teachings of the Christ. Even that grand nation which had received at first hand the laws of God from that Moses who led them from bondage through the miracle-parted sea, and which Joshua afterward established by the sword in the pleasant places beyond the Jordan,

could not comprehend the possibilities and demands of a spiritual kingdom. Pagan Rome, the centre of civilization, the seat of learning, the home of power, holding in domination almost the whole known world, laughed at the crucifixion of the Christ, and jeered at his claim to divinity. Jerusalem is still held by the infidel host, Rome is still crumbling into ruin and decay ; but the divine teachings of the crucified Christ are evangelizing the world. It may be claimed that this body gathered here to-night is the product of civilization ; but, in my judgment, it is the outcome of developed Christianity.

We welcome you to our city, to our young and growing State, as representatives of the Christian idea of humanity, mercy, and charity. Your gathering here is a splendid demonstration of the fact that the American people are abreast of the age in matters of humanity, of kindness, and of fellowship between man and man. We welcome you to our homes, and there is no latch-string upon the door. We trust and believe that your deliberations will be productive of good to the whole people ; that your formulated ideas may soon be accepted by American statesmanship, and made a part of the law of the land. We hope that the time is soon coming when nations shall exist only for the protection of the weak and the unfortunate against the domination of the strong, the rich, and the favored. God speed the time when self-interest shall cease to be the mainspring of human action ; when wrong shall no longer be justified under the warranty of power ; when the sword of the soldier shall leap from its scabbard only for the protection of the helpless and the redemption of the oppressed ; when society and the home shall open their great, sympathetic hearts, and extend supporting hands to lift up and save from utter degradation the repentant sinner and the hopeless outcast ! We hope that the deliberations of this Conference will be attended by the success which the splendid character of its representatives warrants and predicts. Once more, in behalf of the citizens of Omaha, I welcome you to our city, and extend to you the hospitality of our homes.

ADDRESS OF MR. E. ROSEWATER,

EDITOR OF THE OMAHA "BEE."

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,—Less than three hours ago, a letter was handed to me from the Secretary of the Board of Trade, requesting that I should deliver to you a message of welcome on the part and in behalf of the merchants, manufacturers, and bankers organized under the name of the Chamber of Commerce or Board of Trade. Why was I chosen on such short notice? I presume because an editor is supposed to be a sort of walking encyclopædia of statistics, competent at all times to give information on any subject conceivable.

In appearing in behalf of our mercantile class, I desire to call your attention to some facts that may be interesting to you as visitors.

The city of Omaha is the youngest city of her population on the American continent. Within the short space of thirty-three years, we have reached a population of ninety thousand. In this city, during the last year more than six million dollars' worth of buildings have been erected and at the present time more than five million dollars' worth are already completed; and, by the end of the year, not less than eight million dollars will have been expended in public and private structures. This city, that has trebled its population since 1880, does a business of fifty millions in jobbing, and during the last year has handled in precious metals alone in the Grant smelting and refining mills over twenty millions of silver, gold, and other metals. These smelting works are the largest in the world. A city of such magnitude, built at short notice, is not in condition to exhibit the refinement and culture that you find in the Eastern cities; but you will find a sentiment among our community largely in accord with your noble work. Though I cannot give you a full statistical review of the facts about Omaha, suffice it to say that the bankers of this city handle \$150,000,000 a year in their exchanges, and have on deposit over \$16,000,000,—a large sum considering the age of the city.

Speaking for the Board of Trade, the members of whom I have the honor to represent, I desire to say that they will be well pleased to entertain you and give you a visible exhibit of all that is going on, if you will take the pains to call at their stores, factories, and banking establishments. They extend to you a hearty and cordial welcome.

I am here in two capacities, as representative of the press as well

as of the Board of Trade. The press of the United States has done more to bring about proper public sentiment with reference to the work in which you are engaged than any one other agency. There has been a great deal of vicious matter in the press, and there has been a great deal printed that might properly be omitted; but it has also encouraged the noblest sentiments of the people, which have been crystallized into action in societies of charity and benevolence. So the press and your organization are working hand in hand; and, in behalf of the press as much as of the Board of Trade, I extend to you the heartiest welcome. I hope your sessions will be instructive and productive of the highest results, conducing to a better condition of humanity.

ADDRESS OF F. H. WINES.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,—It affords me great pleasure, as the representative of this Conference, to thank you for the very kind and generous hospitality which you have extended to us upon this occasion. For the last twenty years, I have been attending, with more or less regularity, conventions of this sort; but it has never been my pleasure to see a finer audience than that assembled here to-night, and I have never listened to more cordial speeches of welcome. I was particularly impressed with the extraordinary modesty displayed by the speakers. Of all the speeches of welcome I ever heard, these are certainly the most modest, in what they claim for Omaha. When our newspaper friend began, I thought we were going to hear something of the spread-eagle order; but he gave us calm, deliberate, statistical facts, which make upon our minds a lively impression of the extraordinary growth of this great city, which is one of the wonders of the world. I am an Eastern man by birth, but a Western man by adoption, having lived in the West all my active life; and, I can assure you, nothing gives me so much pleasure as to take an Eastern man into a real live Western town, and see him open his eyes. I cannot make our Eastern friends believe that you have one hundred thousand population. They listen to plain statements of cold matters of fact, and think that they are the heated imaginings of our Western people. I like to see them taken down a bit; for, though I am an Eastern man by birth, I am prepared to admit that in the West there are certain elements of greatness which are peculiar to it, and which we do not share with our Eastern

brethren. I think that we do everything a little bit better than they do. We have the benefit of their experience, to begin with. We go East and see what they have done and where they have made their mistakes,—and they admit that they have made very grave mistakes; that they have outgrown their earlier convictions and impressions — and we of the West say: We will start where they left off. We will lay better and broader foundations, and build up a better superstructure. It is only a question of time until we shall surpass them in pretty nearly everything. You see that I am not so modest as these Omaha people!

However, jesting aside, the gentlemen who have spoken have referred to the desire felt in Nebraska for a State Board of Charities. I have no doubt that this is very desirable and would be a good thing for the State. There is another thing which seems to me quite as important for you here, and that is that you should organize your city charities. Having lived many years of my life on the frontier, I know that in these Western towns, especially in towns growing as rapidly as this, people are strangers to each other. That is one of the peculiarities of our American life. People come and go in this country in such a way that we are strangers even where we were born and bred and have spent our lives, to an extent not at all true in European communities. In a new country, this is particularly true. We have to become acquainted with each other. And these Western towns grow with such rapidity that we cannot keep pace with the demands made upon us. A very brilliant man in Chicago once remarked to me: "There is a great deal said about the public spirit of Chicago, but it is a delusion: there is no special public spirit or energy in Chicago. The fact is that the natural situation of Chicago has made it what it is. The people entering into business here thought that they had begun on a scale large enough; but, by and by, they found their mistake. They were like the man in the parable, who had to pull down his barns and build greater, or like the man who thought that all the water of a certain spring could be caught in a tin cup. So he took a tin cup, but found that would not hold it. Then he took a wooden pail, but the pail would not hold it. Then he took a barrel and a hogshead, but he could not find anything that would hold the water that came from the spring. So, in Chicago, the first-comers began by building storehouses and factories and warehouses which they thought would be large enough; but they have had to continually pull down and build greater."

That has been measurably your experience here. Now, one of the

last things to develop in any community is the organization of charity. But it is a thing that should be done as early as possible. And, if you undertake to do it, you will find that the best people of this city will soon become acquainted with each other and attached to each other as never before. If there is any result of this meeting which I earnestly desire, it is the organization of the charities of Omaha.

I wish to disabuse your minds of one idea,—that we have come here to instruct you. We are not teachers: we are students. We believe in the truth of that old saying,—that, as iron sharpeneth iron, so a man the face of his friend. If you have anything to teach us, we shall be glad to learn it. We want to discuss these great questions together and to learn from each other. We shall be glad to have you listen and take part in our discussions, in order that we may all mutually benefit each other.

In the Census Bureau in the Department of the Interior there are lists of the insane, deaf and dumb, blind, idiotic, paupers, criminals, homeless children who are dependent on charity. Those lists aggregate something like five hundred thousand names, or about one in one hundred of the entire population. It seems terrible that one in one hundred of the entire population of the United States should be entered by name somewhere on those lists. Yet it is a matter of congratulation that we are not in the condition of older countries, in some of which the paupers alone number one in thirty, in others one in forty-five. There are countries in which the pauper population alone is from two to three times as great in proportion to the population as the deaf, blind, insane, idiotic, paupers, criminals, and dependent children of this country altogether. If we wish to preserve our present condition, and to prevent the rising of this tide of crime and misfortune in America, we must seriously address ourselves to the study of the questions in which this Conference is so deeply interested. Every year the support of the defective, dependent, and delinquent classes costs us not less than seventy-five million dollars. We come together to compare notes, that we may better know how to alleviate this great amount of human suffering and to prevent the growth of these classes. We have no other aim. We have no opinions to promulgate, no special plans to press upon your attention. We have no principles which we must stand for, as men stand for a religious dogma. We want to know the truth, to find out the right ways of doing things; and, in our effort to do that, we invoke the help of the citizens of Omaha.

I have no doubt that we shall enjoy our stay here. We have pleas-

ant recollections of every city where we have been. But I think that, when we leave you, we shall feel that the greatest and best people that we have met are here in Omaha. I remember visiting a jail once, where I came in contact with a prisoner who, the sheriff told me, had had seven wives. "You are the very man I have been looking for," I said: "now tell me which of all your wives you loved best." Taken by surprise at the question, he replied, "The first one and the last one." I have no doubt that the answer was strictly true, and that like him, when we leave Omaha, we shall feel that we love this city best of any in which the Conference has ever assembled.

ADDRESS OF F. B. SANBORN.

Mr. Mayor and your Excellency,—The fulness of your welcome and the heartiness of your greeting, as our Conference visits for the first time this young giant of the Western cities, leave us little but thanks to offer you in return. To many of us, your scenery is new; your achievements and your possibilities take us by surprise, but your hospitality makes us familiar and at home. We recognize under your wild Indian names,—Omaha, which makes us put our hands to our top hair, and think involuntarily of the tomahawk; Nebraska, with its more soothing sound; and the swift rush of syllables in Missouri,—under these names of the savage, we recognize the milder aspects of our national civilization, and are well assured that we can here consider the sweet charities, without further thought of scalding and roasting. Even the blizzard does not terrify us, and we trust to your kindness to see that we are not visited by a cyclone during our session. You have alluded, gentlemen, to the peculiar character of our assembly,—that it does not seek the usual objects of worldly ambition, but labors and plans to alleviate human suffering, and to give a new and fair chance to those who, in the hot race of life, have fallen behind or been trodden under foot. While we cannot accept all your praise for simply doing our duty, we join with you in upholding this work of charity and of reformation as the noblest in which men and women can be employed; and we are told, what we should hardly have expected from the ceaseless activity and evident prosperity of your youthful community, that here also are to be found, in daily operation, those sources of poverty, insanity, crime, and more than bestial degradation, which are so hideously active in older cities

and lands of inherited misery. If there is anything in our experience that can be of advantage to you, we desire to place it freely at your service ; and, renouncing our dearest Yankee privilege of asking questions, we offer ourselves to be questioned and cross-examined upon those subjects to which some of our number have devoted years of thought and observation.

I was reminded, as our friend of the *Bee* recited the achievements of this city, its wealth and its possibilities, of a saying by Dr. Johnson. After the death of his friend, the brewer Thrale, the doctor attended the auction of his brewery, with pencil and note-book, jotting down items, to the surprise of a friend, who wondered that he should be so engaged in the mere sale of a brewery. Johnson replied, "This is not a parcel of tubs and vats that we are selling : it is the possibility of wealth beyond the dreams of avarice." What we have here seen is not only the possibility of wealth beyond the dreams of avarice, but the possibility of a civilization, a degree of comfort and prosperity for all classes, which never before existed on the face of the earth ; and this imposes on you an obligation that the people who create this wealth, who produce this comfort, and extend it over lands which so recently were barren and unsettled, should not suffer the evils which in older communities it is scarcely possible to avoid.

I was also reminded, when Gov. Thayer mentioned the early history of this State, of an experience of my own. I visited this region, for the first time, thirty-one years ago. I did not set my foot on the territory of Omaha, but was on the other side of the river, at Council Bluffs, which was then a thriving village, and which I believe is still a thriving village. On this side of the river, I saw two houses or a house and a barn. The whole history of your city, and I may almost say of your whole State, is included in those thirty-one years. The parallel which came into my mind was the history of our Conference. We have not existed even as long as Omaha ; but there is the record of our first year's Conference [holding up a thin pamphlet of fifty pages], and this is the size to which we have come [holding up a volume of five hundred pages]. I think we have thus far emulated the progress of Omaha, but we cannot keep up with you any longer. Still, with your help, ladies and gentlemen, if we cannot increase the size of our Conference to compare with the size of your city, we can carry this work on, as you are carrying your business enterprise and prosperity, into all sections of our common country, and thereby benefit every portion of the land, as you are benefiting the material prosperity of your own section.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

BY H. H. GILES,

MADISON, WIS.

Officers and Members of the Fourteenth National Conference of Charities and Correction:

We are here as the representatives of that humanitarian sentiment which is abroad in the world for the healing and regeneration of society. It is a sentiment which has been coming more and more into prominence during the past century,—a sentiment which has organized itself for work wherever a human being has been found in distress or wandering in ways of sin. It is a sentiment which to-day is the mightiest motive power in our civilization; for it marshals its servants in a thousand benefactions, and rules the hearts of the multitude like a religious aspiration.

We are here in a conference of philanthropy,—to perfect the methods of helpfulness, to devise more successful agencies for the relief of those who have no tongue to plead their cause and no eye to see the better part, and also for the rescue of those who falter in the way of righteousness and for the reform of those who have already wandered from virtue and rectitude.

We are here, not to plan military conquests, as was the wont of kings at their meetings in olden times, nor even to assert and protect our political rights, as was the wont of our liberty-loving forefathers; but, rather, we are here to represent and foster that modern spirit which recognizes the unity of social interests, loves the unlovely, and spends itself for the good of those in need.

We are here, delegated and commissioned by the wide sympathy and brooding pity of this new era, to gain the wisdom of charity, that we may deal with these social disorders skilfully as well as tenderly; to kindle a deeper and more general interest in these humanities, that a larger number may translate their love of God into a practical and efficient love of man; and also to build up in our own hearts a more intelligent and persuasive motive power, which shall enable us to reach a closer and more fruitful fellowship with Him who went about doing good.

This National Conference of Charities and Correction was organized out of the common impulse of scattered laborers in this department of human activity, who felt the necessity of meeting for association and helpfulness. It came into being to supply a generally recognized need of a more intimate acquaintance and a more extended co-operation among the men and women interested in the reforms and philanthropies of the land. The sentiment prevailed that these tasks were too great to be borne alone and these problems were too difficult to be solved by individual wisdom.

The consciousness deepened that the workers for the humanities needed all the inspiration which can be kindled by association and all the insight and knowledge which can be acquired by discussion.

Out of this craving for fellowship in a work which taxes the heart and out of this desire for the fullest information respecting problems which tax the intellect was born this Conference, whose rapid growth soon proved the abundant necessity and large opportunity for such an organization, and whose influences for good have already outrun the hopes of its founders and more than justified its existence.

One of the most important objects of the Conference is to unify the methods of philanthropy. While we must always try to fit our work to the special circumstances before us, and while differences of administration will be necessitated by differences of situation, yet there are general principles which underlie all successful efforts, and there are essential elements which every true method must embrace. To lay bare these general principles by the report and comparison of wide-spread experiences, and to arrive at these essential elements by close observation and searching discussion, in order that all may work according to the wisest system and that the many may enjoy the discoveries made by each,—such is the purpose of this organization.

We meet from year to year to publish whatever discoveries we have made in our new fields of effort and inquiry; to confess our mistakes, that others may be saved from error and loss; and to correct our methods by the aid of the experiences of our associates.

In the realm of philanthropic enterprise there are no finalities nor infallibilities. We hold ourselves obedient to the disclosures of an ever-widening experience, remembering that a teachable spirit is the pathway to true wisdom. And, moreover, there are no vested rights in these higher humanities; for, not only is an absolute freedom accorded to all, but a solemn responsibility rests upon all to use whatever method any man has discovered for preventing wrong, for assuaging human woe or gladdening human lives.

It is the object of this Conference to call public attention to the disorders and distresses which afflict society, and to create interest and awaken activity in all efforts for their relief and prevention. Few, as yet, realize even the financial burdens of pauperism and crime. Few realize how much energy and heart-ache are expended in simply caring for our dependent classes. Few realize the mass of wretchedness and degradation which exists in our midst; and fewer still realize the dangers which menace our institutions from the side of the criminal, defective, and deranged classes.

Intimately connected with and including foreign immigration, here are problems that touch not only the pockets of all voters, but the deep-lying sources of their security and happiness,—problems with which the legislator must deal promptly, yet wisely. These are evils which lie across the pathway of the educator and limit his success,—evils which confront the Church as well as the State, and make it hard to bring in the kingdom of righteousness on the earth.

Now, we gather in this Conference to speak with emphasis to the intelligence of this land and with authority to the conscience of this people respecting the magnitude of these evils, in order that we may win to our enterprise a more enlightened public opinion and a more general and generous co-operation.

For the wretched who have no voice to tell their woe, we would demand intelligent charity. The insane and feeble-minded, who are incapable of pleading for themselves, we would present to the pitying heart of man. The claims of dependent and neglected children we would advocate. The wrongs of convicts who have no appeal from the lash we would publish. In behalf of criminals and for the protection of society, we would urge the more rational methods of prison management.

To deepen in every mind a conception of these social evils, to fill every heart with the humanitarian impulse, to organize the constructive and reformatory forces of society more efficiently, to create a public sentiment which shall demand the wisest methods, even if they are apparently the most expensive, to teach legislators to have faith in ability and integrity rather than in brick and mortar, to convince voters that the employment of the best equipped and most talented men is the truest economy, to bring to an end that American folly which invests in cheap methods and temporary expedients and rewards partisan services with the best places,—such are some of the purposes of this Conference.

It has been evident from the beginning that, to accomplish these

objects and to harvest this good, this Conference must confine itself to the work of publishing information, of awakening discussion and creating public opinion.

Only harm can come from any attempt to make platforms and formulate statements. We come here to report whatever truth we have found, to submit our methods to investigation and criticism, and to discuss all problems with absolute freedom, without reference to precedent and with no regard to any authority except that of reason and experience.

We commit ourselves unreservedly to the spirit of progress and free inquiry. We purpose to hold all our opinions subject to revision, and to keep this Conference open at the top. We expect to grow, and, in growing, to outgrow each year some of last year's limitations. We prize discovery more than dogmatism, and we are here to open the door of truth rather than to enforce conformity. We all do our whole duty when we say our best word and tell the story of our latest experience.

This must be the arena of free discussion ; for we are all here, not to pronounce judgment, but to welcome discovery ; not to formulate abstract principles, but to publish facts ; not to exert authority, but to create enthusiasm ; not to place a hedge about the truth, but to make truth a living power ; not to congeal the philanthropic sentiment by attempting to confine it in elaborate resolutions, but to kindle the altar fires of our own hearts.

The work accomplished by this Conference in the last decade has outgrown the largest expectations of its friends and justified the largest hopes respecting its future usefulness. At its first meeting, fourteen years ago, less than a score of delegates attended ; and they represented three States. At the last year's meeting at St Paul nearly five hundred delegates were in attendance, from thirty-five States and Territories.

This is certainly an encouraging progress. Every succeeding year has been marked by the presence and participation of a larger number of distinguished persons. Governors of States, renowned specialists in every department of reform and philanthropy, and celebrities of science and literature have spoken from our platform, and given us their cordial support and far-reaching influence.

The fact that officials high in authority attend our meetings as helpers and learners, to give and gain clearer ideas respecting those complicated questions upon which they are to act, and also the fact that representative men of all professions and religions so cordially

respond to our call for service,—these facts are bright auguries; for they show on the one hand how quickly ideas here spoken are incorporated into institutions, and on the other how deep is the public interest in these subjects for which we labor.

It is a source of gratification to notice the increasing attention given to our meeting by the press of the land,—that uncrowned king of public opinion and unfrocked priest of knowledge. From year to year, the daily papers have made our words known to multitudes who, though interested, could not be here to listen. The great organs of public information have expounded our ideas in leading editorials, while our annual Proceedings have furnished texts for elaborate reviews in leading magazines and quarterlies. The volumes of our Proceedings already make a respectable library of social science, to which officials go for information and in which university students find inspiration.

We have already done something to shape legislation. The statutes of almost every State are now annually enriched by laws for the better care of the dependent classes and the wiser care of public institutions, which are the outgrowth of the public opinion created by the National Conference. We take note of this growing influence in no spirit of pride, but simply to enforce both the encouragements and the responsibilities of our position.

As we turn toward the future, we find ourselves confronted by great problems still unsolved and by tasks that call for the wisdom of the philosopher and the enthusiasm of the saint.

A large opportunity opens before us. We have reached the period of transition, when our organization ought to pass from the merely formative stage to one of a more exact and systematic character. So far, we have simply been trying to grow as a conference, to mass together a body of men and women such as would command attention and create a national interest in charities and reforms, to get together and compare our experiences, that we might do our work more efficiently. This vantage-ground we have reached. We have gathered our forces and created public opinion. Shall we so organize ourselves as to be able to guide and command the interests awakened?

The time is auspicious for a step forward. The interest in all social and philanthropic work is spreading. The students in all our higher institutions are calling for instruction on social topics. The humanities are gaining a recognized place in literature. The pulpit has become the organ of this new spirit, and everywhere the prophecy

of the great Metternich is coming true: "There are no more political questions: there are only social questions."

Now, shall this Conference enter upon this leadership in the philanthropic education of the people? Most certainly, we have here a noble duty as well as an inviting task. But, if we improve our opportunity and reach in this direction the measure of our possibility, we must somewhat change our present methods.

We have welcomed every person who has had an earnest word, however brief, to speak. We have asked reports from officials in different institutions, however limited their experience. We have selected different men to speak upon topics many times discussed, who could only repeat in different phrases what had already been said.

Now, while our platform ought to be kept as free as it has been and is, and while a large place ought to be reserved for reports of current experience, yet some plan ought to be devised for giving us from year to year certain more elaborate and thorough treatises, wherein all the facts upon any single topic would be massed together, sifted, classified, and made to reveal and enforce some general principle. If we continue upon our present plan, our meetings will become overloaded with inconsequential details, and our published Proceedings will become each year simply a duplicate of former ones. The danger is that at each meeting we shall merely touch the edges of a great many subjects, and come to indulge in the platitudes of our predecessors. The way to save our meetings from any such impending monotone of commonplaces and our reports from becoming a pointless mass of reiteration is by going more deeply and systematically into these great subjects.

To obviate the danger and to insure the leadership of which we have spoken, we suggest that several committees be appointed, from year to year, to make thorough and extended investigation upon given topics, with the understanding that their report, when made, even if deferred a year or more, shall be an exhaustive treatment of that particular topic, embracing the widest range of facts and containing the maturest conclusions of specialists. In this way, we shall be able to obtain a class of work which cannot be had, when men are asked somewhat at random to write papers, upon the eve of our meetings, when it is too late to do justice to themselves or their subject.

This would enable us to make each year substantial progress, at one or more points at least; and thorough knowledge of one thing is better than half knowledge of many things. This would also add

much to the value of our annual reports, which would thus become standard authorities. It might reduce the size of our volume of Proceedings, but it would be no less valuable.

But perhaps these remarks have already extended beyond the proper limit; and now, as we shall address ourselves to the work of the Conference, allow me to congratulate you upon the auspicious opening of the Fourteenth National Conference of Charities and Correction,—a result which is due, first of all, to the generosity and efficiency of the citizens of Omaha, and next to the fidelity and wisdom of my co-laborers, the officers and committees of this body.

And I trust that the high courtesy and generous fellowship which have made our former meetings so agreeable, and the brilliant discussions and noble enthusiasm which have made them so profitable and influential, will reign here, and make this the best, because the most helpful, Conference yet held.

II.

Reports from States.

REPORT OF CORRESPONDING SECRETARIES AND OTHERS.

CALIFORNIA.

Mrs. SARAH B. COOPER, San Francisco.—Our State legislature having held its biennial session since the last annual Conference, the following legislation in regard to charitable and penal institutions may be reported:—

The total amount paid by the State for charities during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1887, was \$404,415.33. This sum was paid to different eleemosynary institutions, and does not include the amounts paid to the employees of the State. Of this amount, \$231,266.44 was paid for the support of orphans, half-orphans, and abandoned children. The cost to the State for aged persons in indigent circumstances was \$173,148.89. For the transportation of insane and prisoners to the asylums and prisons, the State paid \$60,819.47.

The State owns none of the property used for the care of orphans or aged persons, but contributes to their support: for whole orphans, \$100 per year; for half-orphans, \$75; for abandoned children, \$75; for aged persons, \$150 per year. There are 19 orphan asylums and 25 institutions for aged persons. Of the latter, 20 are county hospitals and 5 are under private control. The number of orphans and abandoned children is 3,254; of aged persons, 1,454.

The institution for the care and training of feeble-minded children has been crowded to overflowing, and an additional appropriation of \$25,000 was made for its enlargement. The sum of \$45,000 was appropriated for the carrying on of the work. Dr. A. E. Osborne is the medical superintendent of the home, and is very successful in his work.

Large appropriations were made for the asylums for the insane at Stockton and Napa,—for the former, \$203,931.71; for the latter,

\$201,189.50. The sum of \$125,090 was appropriated for the purchase of site and erection of a hospital for the chronic insane. The deaf, dumb, and blind asylum received an appropriation of \$61,778.90. This is one of the most successful institutions of its kind, and shows excellent results. For the support of the adult blind, \$32,727.27 was expended.

The Veterans' Home expended \$14,654.30 in the support of its inmates during the past year.

Our State prisons make large demands on the State treasury. That of San Quentin drew \$151,157.87; that of Folsom, \$104,695.52, and this aside from transportation of prisoners. It is to be noted just here that the amount paid for the support of these two penitentiaries, exceeds by about \$60,000 the total amounts appropriated for the State Board of Education, the State University, the State Normal Schools at San José and Los Angeles. What a sad and suggestive commentary!

And, in this connection, a strong plea is in order in behalf of the establishment of free kindergartens for neglected children under school age. From three to six years of age, the seeds of vice and crime are scattered in the minds of these little street waifs. There are now over forty free kindergartens in the State. Over thirty of these are in San Francisco and environs. Mrs. Leland Stanford supports eight free kindergartens. She has given \$30,000 for kindergarten work. Mrs. George Hearst supports a free kindergarten. So also, does the daughter of Charles Crocker. Already, this work is showing important results in the localities where these beneficent schools are planted. They work out great moral transformations among the adult classes, through the little children, thus verifying the Scripture promise, "A little child shall lead them." The Produce Exchange of San Francisco supports a kindergarten. They thus make investments in moral as well as material harvests. Two out of three of the prize pupils of one of the largest of our primary schools of the city were from the Produce Exchange Kindergarten. It is located in one of the neediest portions of the city, and is a great power for good. It would be well if the commercial organizations of large cities would invest in free kindergartens. It would prove a grand paying investment for generations yet to come. The National Educational Association, held in Chicago in July, passed a resolution strongly urging the fostering and maintenance of kindergartens all over the country. Formation is far better than re-formation. Prevention is better than cure. "Each generation of children begins the

history of the world anew." It seems to me the great and glorious temperance cause would find its speediest solution in teaching little children the great and abiding principles of self-control and self-government.

In closing, I must speak of the Pacific Coast Conference of Charities, held in San Francisco Dec. 7-11, 1886. California is so far away from the East that it cannot avail itself of the inspiration and help of the National Conference to the extent that other States may do. A large attendance was secured, including one hundred and sixty delegates. A volume of two hundred and forty pages, including able essays, addresses, and discussions, has been published. It will furnish a vast amount of general information in regard to the charities and reformatory work of the Pacific Coast as well as in regard to the best methods of reform. Another Conference is to be held in November of the present year.

Briefly, then, the dependent, defective, and delinquent classes of California number not far from fourteen thousand, with a cost to the State during the last fiscal year of \$1,250,000. The most thoughtful people of the State are seeking the best solution of this problem through education rather than legislation,—education that involves the moral, intellectual, and physical. An effort is also on foot to organize the charities of the State. An able paper on this subject was presented to the Conference by Rev. Charles Dana Barrows, D.D., and it has since been largely circulated. An efficient charity organization is one of the State's greatest needs.

COLORADO.

Mrs. J. S. SPERRY, Pueblo.—The change from Republican to Democratic control of the State last year caused but one change in the executive officers of institutions. Mr. C. V. Hoyt has again taken charge of the penitentiary as successor to Gen. Cameron. Rev. L. J. Hall has been appointed chaplain in place of Rev. Edward Brooks, resigned. Several bills bearing on correction and preventive work were considered during the last session, three of which were added to the statutes: first, for protection of children under fourteen years of age from being employed in coal mines, factories, etc.; second, providing for the care of incorrigible girls in institutions already established, until the State can provide a home for them; third, punishing cruelty to children. This bill is a special protection to abandoned children.

Mr. W. C. Sampson, superintendent of the Industrial School for boys at Golden, reports 98 boys in charge (90 being a necessary limit on account of keeping within the appropriation); admitted during the year, 63; sent to homes, 55; expense of school for the year, \$18,091.53; per capita, \$201.07, or 59 cents a day. The school is in a prosperous condition; and, notwithstanding the ignorance and deplorable condition of many admitted, we can testify from a personal knowledge of good accomplished in teaching them to be useful, giving them an ordinary education and the best of discipline. The amount appropriated for the next biennial term is \$49,000, or \$24,500 per year. With this, an average of 150 boys can be supported. \$5,000 additional to the above was appropriated for the purchase of forty acres of land and for farming machinery. The health of the school is excellent,—not a death so far in its history.

Mr. D. C. Dudley, superintendent of the Mute and Blind Asylum at Colorado Springs, reports 60 pupils: mute, 41,—23 boys and 18 girls; blind, 19,—boys, 10; girls, 9. No deaths the last two years. An appropriation of \$11,000 to cancel indebtedness was made last session, and a one-fifth mill tax on valuation of property in the State for support, which will amount to about \$22,000 a year. Expense of school for two years, \$21,969.01. Institution in a prosperous condition.

The penitentiary reports as follows:—

“Total number of convicts confined July 1, 1886 (males, 316; females, 5), 321. Received during year ending June 30, 1887, 154; discharged (females, 1; males, 149), 150; died (male, 1; female, 1), 2. Total number confined July 1, 1887 (males, 320; females, 3), 323.

“The only legislation of the last General Assembly bearing on the management was an act prohibiting the leasing or contracting of convict labor. All work performed by them must be for the State. All prisoners here now, not at work in the prison buildings, kitchens, and shops, are employed in the manufacture of brick and burning lime, the latter being at present, and for years past, the chief industry here.

“The amount appropriated for the penitentiary for the years 1887 and 1888 is \$150,000, and not to exceed \$50,000 of prison's cash earnings, making a total of \$200,000, a decrease from the appropriation for 1885 and 1886 of \$40,000. I cannot say that I contemplate any very radical changes in the management of the prison; and about the only reforms I have sought to inaugurate since taking charge here are based upon the maxims that ‘Cleanliness is akin to

godliness' and 'Satan finds some mischief still for idle hands to do.' These struck me as the most immediately necessary.

"My experience has taught me that prisoners are less discontented, bear their confinement more philosophically, and are easier to discipline and care for, if they are kept steadily employed, than if they are allowed to consult their own inclinations, and made to believe that they are a very much abused and persecuted community. While no one would more heartily and sincerely than I join in work to advance any practical movement to discourage and lessen crime and help the unfortunate criminal back into the better road, still I do not take very kindly to that (I regret to say) rather prevalent sentimentalism which transforms the penitentiary into a 'health resort' and the criminal into a martyr.

"Our chaplain, Rev. L. J. Hall, takes the greatest interest in his work here; and, as he has assumed entire charge of all chapel exercises and the many duties connected therewith, his time is fully occupied. He is a very earnest, sincere, and kind-hearted Christian gentleman, and most admirably adapted to his present work, being possessed of the chief attributes requisite in such a field,—patience, forbearance, and perseverance.

"C. P. HOYT, *Warden.*"

The Insane Asylum at Pueblo, Dr. P. R. Tombs, superintendent, reports 288 patients treated the past two years, 191 having been admitted and 150 discharged. Recovered, 117, or 61½ per cent. of admissions. \$45,000 was appropriated by the last Assembly for additional buildings, which will add greatly to the comfort of the inmates.

The support given Colorado's private charities will compare favorably with older States. Denver reports a Ladies' Relief Home for women and children, a Free Bed Association, an Orphanage, at present caring for 31 children (from three to twelve years of age), a Temperance Home, a Newsboys' Home and Reading-room, and two hospitals; besides the Catholic institutions,—two hospitals, the House of the Good Shepherd, and one orphanage.

The Cottage Home at Colorado Springs, controlled by the State Women's Christian Temperance Union, is a most worthy charity, giving a home to a class despised and shunned even by those who wrought their ruin. Catherine W. Beach, of Denver, the indefatigable founder of this institution, spends much of her time soliciting funds for its support.

Leadville reports systematic charity work.

Pueblo supports three hospitals (one Catholic) and the Ladies' Benevolent Union Home. This society covers every branch of city aid work,—friendly visiting among the poor, giving shelter to street waifs, caring for the feeble-minded, etc. Any who need temporary aid are received into the home. A free labor bureau system gives labor to hundreds every year, while the large store-room of clothing is indispensable. The hospital department is always crowded with the homeless sick.

We are pleased to note a decided tendency among the class of citizens who govern the State to keep before the people, until some action is taken, any feasible plan to better the condition of the unfortunate.

CONNECTICUT.

HENRY E. BURTON, Secretary State Board of Charities, Hartford.—The General Assembly will hereafter meet biennially; and its next session will begin in January, 1889. The last Assembly, January, 1887, subjected boarding-houses for children to the inspection of the State Board of Charities; put the custody of children, pending proceedings for their commitment to reform and industrial schools or temporary homes, in the direction of courts; raised the age of consent for female children to fourteen years, and fixed the penalty for offenders under the act at three years or for life in State prison, at the discretion of the court; limited the labor of women, and children under sixteen years of age, in manufacturing, mechanical, and mercantile establishments, to ten hours per day; required the appointment, in the interests of the safety and health of operatives, of an Inspector of Factories; authorized county commissioners to transfer insane prisoners from jails to the Connecticut Hospital for the Insane at Middletown; declared prisoners three times convicted of crimes for which the minimum punishment is two years in State prison to be incorrigible, and authorized their imprisonment for twenty-five years after the expiration of the third sentence, unless sooner pardoned or released on parole; provided for the further retention of insane criminals in the Connecticut Hospital for the Insane after expiration of sentence; fixed a maximum penalty of three years' imprisonment for men who desert their wives, neglect to support them, and cohabit with other women; authorized selectmen to furnish the licensed liquor-dealers of their town with a list of persons who are helped by the town and are known to use intoxicating liquors, and provided a penalty for

furnishing liquor to the persons mentioned in such list; and continued to the next General Assembly a proposed act to abolish town almshouses and establish district almshouses.

The legislature appropriated, to supply deficiencies in appropriations for the year ending June 30, 1887, as follows:—

Connecticut Hospital for the Insane, Middletown, for support of pauper and indigent patients,	\$7,000.00
Soldiers in hospitals,	30,000.00
Temporary Home for Dependent Children,	5,000.00
Industrial School for Girls,	3,500.00
Connecticut School for Imbeciles,	528.24
Burial expenses of deceased soldiers,	1,500.00
Soldiers' children,	200.00
	<hr/>
	\$47,728.24

And made appropriations for the two years ending June 30, 1889 as follows:—

Connecticut Hospital for the Insane, for pauper and indigent insane and insane convicts,	\$168,000.00
For insane soldiers,	10,000.00
For insane supported elsewhere than at Middletown,	16,500.00
For expenses of trustees of Connecticut Hospital for the Insane,	600.00
For support of boys in State Reform School,	117,000.00
For two cottage buildings at State Reform School,	30,000.00
For the expenses of the trustees of State Reform School, .	600.00
For support of girls in Connecticut Industrial School, . . .	67,000.00
To provide for protection from fire and for gas and an office building for Connecticut Industrial School,	10,000.00
For board and clothing of sick and wounded soldiers in Fitch's Home and in hospitals in this State,	137,000.00
For burial expenses of deceased soldiers,	16,000.00
For support of soldiers' children,	16,000.00
For the General Hospital Society of Connecticut,	10,000.00
For Hartford Hospital,	10,000.00
For Bridgeport Hospital,	10,000.00
For support of deaf and dumb,	24,000.00
For the support of the blind,	14,000.00
And for buildings for laundry, etc.,	5,000.00
For Connecticut School for Imbeciles,	20,000.00
For State prison, deficit in earnings,	21,900.00
And for land damages,	500.00
For Connecticut Prison Association, salary of secretary, . .	2,000.00
For expenses of directors of Connecticut State prison, . .	800.00
Care of insane and idiotic prisoners and all other expenses, .	2,600.00
	<hr/>
<i>Amount carried forward</i>	\$709,500.00

<i>Amount brought forward,</i>	\$709,500.00
For Connecticut Humane Society,	4,000.00
For temporary homes for dependent and neglected children,	20,000.00
For board of prisoners in county jails,	164,000.00
For State Board of Charities, salary of secretary,	3,000.00
Travelling and other expenses of the board,	4,000.00
For support of State paupers,	16,000.00
For Connecticut State Firemen's Association,	10,000.00
For general hospital in the town of Danbury,	6,000.00
For general hospital in the town of Waterbury,	25,000.00
Total,	\$961,500.00

The improvements in the State prison, referred to as provided for in our last year's report, are in progress, as are the improvements at the Reform and Industrial Schools, provided for in the foregoing appropriations. The improvements at the Industrial School will give larger facilities for teaching the girls all kinds of housework.

DAKOTA.

Rev. J. M. McBRIDE, Aberdeen.—The Territory of Dakota pleads in behalf of her reformatory and charitable institutions that, like herself, they are yet in infancy. Fifteen years ago there were scarcely ten thousand white people in all Dakota, and to-day there are over half a million. Fifteen years is a short time in which to erect and find out the best methods of managing the various charitable and reformatory institutions needed by half a million of people. Much has been done. Much yet remains undone. The people, through their representatives, have made liberal appropriations; and in some of our institutions, I am glad to be able to say, politics has not been allowed to enter. This is not true of all; but yet I am glad, after hearing the reports of some of the older States, that into the Hospitals for the Insane, the Deaf-mute School, and the Industrial School for Boys in the Territory of Dakota, politics as yet has not been allowed to enter.

We hope at an early date to establish a Board of Charities and Corrections.

I wish to say that all these institutions to which the report refers have grown up under my eyes, and even to me it seems wonderful that in so few years it was possible to accomplish so much.

Dakota has a grand record as regards crime. With the possible exception of the mining regions of the Black Hills, she has fewer criminals than any other State or Territory within the United States.

It is not so, however, with the insane. The hardships and isolations of frontier life appear to swell the number of poor unfortunates whose reason is clouded. There are in the Territory two hospitals for the insane, one located at Yankton and one at Jamestown. The Yankton Hospital was opened for the reception of patients in 1879. Since that date, 579 patients have been treated. The present number of patients is 163. Capacity of building, 120. The last legislature appropriated \$92,500 for enlarging and improving the building; but, owing to an unfortunate difficulty between the Governor of the Territory and the Board of Trustees, no part of this sum has been expended. It is hoped that this most unfortunate condition of affairs will not last long. For maintenance for the current year, \$49,000 was appropriated. The hospital is also endowed to the extent of 640 acres of good land, a gift from the United States government.

The hospital at Jamestown was opened May 29, 1886. Present number of patients, 150. An appropriation of \$153,000 was also made for enlarging this hospital, as its capacity is also fully taken. \$53,975 was appropriated for current expenses for the year.

The Deaf-mute School located at Sioux Falls has buildings the estimated value of which is \$50,000. Appropriation for annual expenditure, \$11,625. There are about 50 pupils in attendance.

There are two penitentiaries in Dakota,—one in Bismarck, the other in Sioux Falls. Both are fine, large structures, well adapted for the use intended. They are well managed; and the prisoners are treated in a humane manner, the primary object being to reform and not to punish.

At Plankinton is located what we call a Reform School. It is not yet complete. \$30,000 was appropriated for its erection, and \$12,500 to keep it running until next meeting of the legislature.

There are also in Dakota a number of charitable institutions maintained by private charity.

DELAWARE.

Mr. JOHN MASSEY, Wilmington.—So little progress has been made that it seems almost unnecessary to have any report from Delaware. All of peculiar interest has been covered by previous reports. Meetings have been held in the interest of prison reform, but no substantial progress has been made; but we hope that seed has been sown which may eventually bring forth fruit. The State is composed of exceedingly conservative elements, who cling tenaciously to old methods and practices. It was formerly the custom in Newcastle County

to transport the prisoners from the jail at Newcastle, where they are confined, to Wilmington, on the cars, and march them, innocent and guilty alike, in a chain gang through one of the principal streets of the city to the court-house for trial. Within the year, they have secured a modern police van in which to convey them from the jail to the place of trial. The same county has also had constructed an ambulance, of the latest and most convenient pattern, constructed for use in connection with the county hospital.

No legislation worthy of notice has been enacted in relation to charities or corrections, except some important amendments to the laws of the Delaware Society to protect Children from Cruelty.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Mrs. SARA A. SPENCER, Washington.—A thorough examination of the charities and penal and reformatory institutions of the District of Columbia was made during the present year by the Charity Organization Society, for the purpose of publishing a complete directory of the charities and corrections of the District. The first edition was immediately mailed to the officers of these institutions, with a request for additional information as to names, purposes, location, modes of admission, changes of administration, increase in capacity, improvements, etc.

The following is a summary of the present provision made for the dependent, defective, and delinquent classes of this District, and of the United States and foreign countries residing here as national dependants:—

Institutions for the Aged,	10
Children,—Orphans, Infants, Sick, and Neglected,	16
The Sick,—Men, Women, and Children,	18
Soldiers,—Various Agencies for Relief,	5
Industrial and Reformatory,	8
Insane (Government Hospital),	1
Wayfarers (aside from Station-houses),	1
Penal Institutions (United States Jail and Workhouse),	2
Benevolent Societies,	27
Physicians to the Poor,	11
Druggists to the Poor,	11
Health Officer,	1
Police Stations (where Out-door Relief is administered),	8
Sanitary Officer,	1

These agencies and institutions provide shelter for 4,526 men, women, and children, and treat and provide for 8,741 persons in

their homes, aside from governmental out-door relief and the relief furnished by churches.

There are one hundred and eighty-eight churches, all of which care for the poor, not only of their own membership, but in many cases of their respective parishes. In addition to the above, about one thousand mutual benefit and benevolent societies take care of their own members through all vicissitudes of accident and suffering.

During the past year, no important changes have been made in the officers, or the capacity or management of national, District, or private institutions. On the whole, the officers are intelligent, efficient, and faithful.

The buildings of the Garfield Hospital and the National Homœopathic Hospital are being carried forward on admirable plans, without interference with their present excellent care of patients. The social leaders of Washington are about equally divided and equally enthusiastic in their devotion to these two institutions, representing the two great schools of medicine. Both were greatly needed, and are doing a beneficent work.

The National Hospital for the Insane has built a new dining-hall and a workshop, and is now laying the foundations of a separate building for convict patients, to accommodate about 60 persons. Since the building of a large addition to the hospital two years ago, to provide needed space for women, the facilities as to space are ample, and the institution is not crowded as formerly. It seems inconceivable that more than 1,000 insane persons, representing every known phase of madness, should be safely sheltered under one roof, with no complaint from city officials, citizens, relatives, or friends. Dr. Godding's admirable management does much to compensate for the evils of the congregate system, which is hopelessly identified with this giant national institution.

The changes in city administration, resulting from the change of administration in the general government, have, contrary to all predictions on the subject, left the charities and corrections of Washington comparatively undisturbed. The new commissioners were wise enough to learn from their predecessors the exact situation of these interests, and to profit by their experience.

There were three chiefs of police in one year, during the transition period from a Republican to a Democratic administration. To each of these the officers of the Charity Organization Society presented themselves, stating their relation to the dependent, defective, and delinquent classes of the District as a voluntary association of cit-

izens for the suppression of vagrancy and pauperism and the promotion of thrift and self-dependence among the poor, and asking that the registration lists of the society might be used in police administration of out-door relief, for information before action upon cases, and for record thereafter. Each new chief was certain he did not need this aid, and that himself and police sergeants could not and would not be imposed upon by applicants for relief. But, in each case, the District Commissioners requested these officers to use the records of the society by all means, and to promptly arrest impostors.

In the interests of peace and order, the commissioners on May 1, 1887, ordered the strict enforcement through the police of a long-slumbering Sunday liquor law. The result has been three months when quiet Sabbaths of real rest have blessed the city. The general diminution of street drunkenness and tramperry is a subject for congratulation. Yet, as a practical illustration of how figures may mislead on a reform problem, the following is interesting: —

Arrests and Trials.

May 1 to Aug. 15, 1886, U.S. cases, 1,408; D.C., 1,962. Total, 3,360.

May 1 to Aug. 15, 1887, U.S. cases, 1,494; D.C., 2,437. Total, 3,931.

The increase results from the application of the law, certainly not from more numerous offences.

The national drill, which was held in Washington during the month of May last, was doubly protected from disorder, crime, and suffering by a rigid enforcement of a regulation from the War Department prohibiting the sale of intoxicating liquors on or in the neighborhood of Camp Washington, and also by the presence of the fully equipped and royally managed forces of the American Association of the Red Cross, under the leadership of its president, Miss Clara Barton. The Red Cross Hospital was the most real feature of the drill. Owing to change of climate, unaccustomed exposure, and over-exertion, it became necessary to diagnose and treat 186 cases of illness in the camp, to dress 12 accidental wounds, to treat 44 cases of sun-stroke, to put up 306 prescriptions. Every life was preserved, every man went safely on his way home. Not one of the cases was due to the use of liquor. This admirable illustration of the practical working of the Red Cross Society was an education to the thousands of American citizens who daily visited the hospital tents and examined the appliances for prompt and speedy relief of suffering among large

bodies of men. Rain fell almost incessantly during the week and the possible consequences without such skilful provision might have brought sorrow to many homes.

The District Commissioners desire your secretary to say that it is a subject of regret to them that our District government is not represented at the Fourteenth National Conference of Charities and Correction. They made every reasonable effort to find suitable delegates, but none could attend at the date named for the Conference.

ILLINOIS.

JOHN W. WHIPP, Springfield.—The Illinois legislature adjourned on the 15th of June. It appropriated for the institutions subject to the inspection of the Board of Charities the gross sum of \$2,440,358.53 for their use during the two years beginning July 1, 1887. It made a further appropriation of \$100,000 for the establishment of an Industrial Home for the Blind at Chicago. The appropriations for the State penitentiaries aggregate \$422,097.54, and for the conveying of convicts to the penitentiaries and the State Reform School \$25,000. Total, \$2,987,456.07. Part of the increased expense of the penitentiaries is due to the adoption of the constitutional amendment prohibiting contract labor in penal and reformatory institutions. The legislature made a tender of the Soldiers' and Sailors' Home at Quincy to the National Government. The fiscal year of the institutions has been changed to end June 30 instead of September 30, as heretofore. This is to enable the State printer to get out the reports before the convening of the General Assembly. The bill to revise the lunacy laws did not come to a vote. A bill to consolidate the management of the two penitentiaries under a single board, and make one of them a reformatory, with the "indeterminate" sentence, passed the House, but failed in the Senate for want of time. The State Commissioners of Public Charities were directed by resolution to bring in at the next session a single consolidated appropriation bill for all the institutions under their charge.

Some important changes were made in the criminal code. The so-called "age of consent" for girls was raised to fourteen years. The procuring of virtuous women for immoral purposes is made an offence punishable by imprisonment in the penitentiary for from one to ten years. The same penalty attaches to the detention of any female, against her will, for any immoral purpose. The keeper of a house of prostitution who permits any virtuous unmarried female under eighteen years of age to live or remain in such house is

liable to imprisonment for not less than one year nor more than five years. A law was passed against boycotting and blacklisting, and another against seditious inflammatory speech and publications.

Our system of public charities continues to grow from year to year. The number of inmates of the State charitable institutions at the close of the fiscal year 1885 was 5,040; one year later, 5,426. The convicts in the penitentiaries numbered at the same date 2,224, making a total of 7,650 persons in charge of the State and maintained at its expense. The estimated number of prisoners in our jails is a little less than 1,000, and of paupers in almshouses about 5,000. The growth of insanity is one of the most serious features of the times. From April, 1885, to April, 1886, there were adjudged to be insane in the county courts of Illinois no less than 1,526 men and women. The legislature, chiefly for political reasons, refused to make further provision for State care of the insane at present; and the consequence will be a great accumulation of insane cases in the almshouses and jails during the next two years.

The statistics of private charities in this State, which are at my command, are very incomplete, though I have personally visited nearly all of them during the past year. I estimate the annual cost of maintenance of these institutions at \$400,000 and the average number of inmates at between 2,000 and 2,500. A new industrial training school for boys has been recently organized in Cook County at Norwood Park.

Concerning charity organization in cities, I can only say that the Charity Organization Society of Chicago is growing in influence. Mr. Johnson, its secretary, has established an admirable little monthly paper, entitled *The Reporter of Organized Charity*.

There has been but one change in the superintendency of the public institutions of this State. Mrs. V. C. Ohr, formerly superintendent of the Soldiers' Orphans' Home, has been succeeded by Mr. H. C. DeMotte.

W. Alex. Johnson, Secretary of the Charity Organization Society, Chicago, supplemented the regular report from Illinois with the following remarks:—

"There is one very interesting matter in connection with the charities of Chicago that I think it is worth while to call your attention to. You know our county board in Chicago has been a bad one, but we have got rid of the board. While in their last days, with an absolute want of funds for any purpose and everything going astray, and in

despair of knowing what to do, they acted on wise advice, for a wonder, and absolutely cut off out-door relief in the city and county and abolished the county agent's office. I am sorry to say it is only abolished *pro tem.*, for I am afraid it will be reorganized in the fall; but at present it is abolished. In the emergency, certain people went to the almshouses, infirmaries, and insane asylums for aid; but they had no officer to do that work. Our society stepped in and said, 'We will do this work for you for the next two or three months.' They said, 'But we cannot pay for it.' We said, 'We will do it for nothing for the next few months; and we will ask no pay for it, either now or then.' We are hoping now to establish some arrangement of that kind by which the Charity Organization Society can do the work the agent has been doing, except giving out-door relief. That we will have nothing to do with.

"Among other matters of especial interest is the industrial training school. A very vigorous effort was made in the legislature to establish an industrial training school for girls and boys, but it failed to pass because the appropriations for other purposes were so large. A private institution for training boys has been established, and is doing fairly. We need one or two other places of the kind, but do not need places for dependent girls. There are two or three societies that do the work of placing out dependent children in homes, but we do not have a dependent home for children. I hope the plan of placing out children will be increased and developed. Other charities are working along successfully, and there are places in Chicago for the relief of almost every ill that humanity is heir to; and the out-door relief matter is one of great interest to all wise charitable people."

INDIANA.

Dr. W. B. FLETCHER, Indianapolis.—Owing to the fact that our last General Assembly was, through unfortunate political complications, in a state of "dead lock" during the entire session, little was done toward the reforms so much needed in our penal and benevolent institutions.

The legislative investigation of the southern prison (penitentiary) developed appalling cruelty, fraud, and mismanagement, which have been corrected by the appointment of new trustees and a new warden, who have introduced many reforms.

About the only other work accomplished by our General Assembly was the separation of the Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home from the School for the Feeble-minded.

The Institution for the Deaf and Dumb reports no change in officers, and that the institution is overcrowded. From lack of accommodation, about one hundred pupils are deprived of education. The superintendent proposes to introduce a printing-office in the institution as a further means of industrial education. A school paper will be issued semi-monthly, and it is aimed to give instruction in the art of printing to an equal number of boys and girls.

The local Charity Organization has been doing good work, as shown by the decreased number of applications for aid and the increased interest in the work of charity organization. The population of our city is 100,000. The Society reports as follows:—

“During the past year, we have acted upon 818 cases as follows:—

Continuous relief,	23
Temporary relief,	209
Needing work rather than relief,	224
Unworthy of relief,	362

“Of the above, 456 were in-door or out-door relief procured through co-operation. During the past year there have been exposed and suppressed by reason of the system under which we work 267 cases of fraud. Were it not for our system of work, these cases would be left to prey upon the citizens of this community, as they have in the past.”

L. A. Barnett, Danville, reported in addition as follows:—

BENEVOLENT INSTITUTIONS AT INDIANAPOLIS.

	Average number.	Maintenance.
Hospital for Insane,	1,542	\$248,756.48
Institution for Deaf and Dumb,	348	52,069.98
Institution for Education of Blind,	124	23,892.00
Total,		<u>\$324,718.46</u>

REFORMATORY INSTITUTIONS.

Reform School for Boys, Plainfield,	516	\$60,000.00
Reformatory for Women and Girls, Indianapolis,	183	30 000.00
Total,		<u>\$90,000.00</u>

PENAL INSTITUTIONS.

State Prison (South), Jeffersonville,	573	\$76,213.62
State Prison (North), Michigan City,	697	95,461.08
Total,		<u>\$161,674.70</u>

Soldiers' Orphans' Home and Asylum for Feeble-minded Children,		\$32,500.00
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The above figures are taken from the official records for the last fiscal year. The average population of each institution is given, and the total cost of maintenance is \$608,893.16. This sum includes the pay of all officers, and all other expenditures, except small sums for repairs, for which there were special appropriations. But this sum, small as it is, considering the population of each institution, is not all a charge upon the State treasury. Half the cost of keeping boys at the Reform School and girls at the Reformatory is paid by the several counties from which they come, and goes to the credit of the General Fund of the treasury. The sum received from convict labor more than pays the expenses of the two prisons, the excess earned by the prison north being more than the deficiency at the prison south. During the past two years, the Governor of the State, Isaac P. Gray, has commuted the sentence of twenty-eight boys, or young men, who were over seventeen and under twenty-one years, to the Reform School for Boys. They had been convicted of felonies, and sentenced to the State prisons. All but one of these young men have proved themselves worthy of the clemency of the governor and demonstrated that Indiana should have an intermediate prison for first offenders, modelled after the Elmira (N.Y.) institution.

The pardoning power is exercised very seldom by Governor Gray; but, instead, when he finds a prisoner worthy, he grants him a parole. In several cases, these paroles have been revoked by the governor, which fact has been notice to those out on parole, that they must live up to the conditions imposed by him.

The State prison south was reorganized last spring. The present management has made a thorough reformation in the prison, and has the confidence and thanks of the people of the State for rescuing the prison from its deplorable and shameful condition.

The contract system is followed in the prisons, but has never been introduced into the reformatories; and, so long as the present management of the Reform School for Boys is continued, it will not be.

In 1883, the legislature provided for building three new insane hospitals. These are located as follows:—

Southern Hospital at Evansville, capacity,	342
Northern Hospital at Logansport, capacity,	342
Eastern Hospital at Richmond, capacity,	<u>443</u>
Total,	1,127

They are now about completed, at a total cost of \$1,273,086; but this sum does not include furnishing. The governor hopes to open

one or two of them this fall; and it is expected that these new hospitals, with the one at Indianapolis, will accommodate all the insane in the State, including the incurable in the poorhouses. It is claimed that the new hospitals are built upon the most improved plans, the cottage plan being followed in the eastern hospital, and the other two being a combination of the cottage and congregate plans. The law provides that no patient shall be discharged until permanently cured, and thus the incurable are secure in a home.

The last legislature separated the two institutions under one management located at Knightstown. The Soldiers' Orphans' Home remains there, and the Feeble-minded Institution was located at Fort Wayne. Very liberal appropriations were made to each for building purposes, that for the Soldiers' Orphans' Home amounting to \$116,000. The feeble-minded children are temporarily occupying one of the buildings of the Eastern Hospital.

Indiana is proud of her State charities, and will increase the capacity of all her institutions as fast as the financial ability of the State will admit. The institutions for the education of the deaf and dumb and the blind should both be enlarged.

Having no State Board of Charities, the State Board of Health during the past year has given much attention to the condition of the county jails and poorhouses; and, now that the eyes of the State authorities are turned on them, there is every indication that great improvement will be made in their condition. There is great need of improvement in many of them.

All the State institutions are in good condition. Much has been said about the benevolent institutions at Indianapolis; but last winter a committee of the legislature, not at all favorable to the management, reported that they found the institutions for the deaf and dumb and the blind in good condition. These two institutions never did better work, and were never better managed than during the past school year. Neither of the institutions used the whole of its appropriation. The commencement exercises of both were attended by a large number of people from the city and State, and all were delighted with the proficiency of the pupils.

There have been many charges made against the management of the Insane Hospital, yet all agree that Dr. W. B. Fletcher, the superintendent, has made a wonderful improvement in the treatment of the insane, and that the sanitary condition of the hospital is perfect in the order of administration; and the cleanliness of every nook and corner and all parts of the immense buildings elicits the most complimentary remarks from every visitor.

Every year adds to the number of orphan homes built by a county, or by two or three adjoining counties, as the law provides.

Indianapolis is noted for its organized charities. The most interesting of these, and the one doing the greatest amount of good, is the Training-school for Nurses, sustained largely by and under the control of the Flower Mission. The school is located in the city hospital, and does all the nursing of patients, and in all respects, except numbers, is equal to the school in Bellevue Hospital, New York. These schools are opening up a new field for the occupation of women, and at the same time are alleviating much suffering by skilled nursing, saving thousands of lives annually.

The people of Indiana pay their taxes cheerfully for all the charitable institutions; and, in all parts of the State, the voluntary contributions for local charities are so large that the State may claim to stand among the first in all charitable work.

IOWA.

Dr. JENNIE McCOWEN, Davenport.—During the past year, the legislature has not been in session; and there is little of special interest to report from this State.

State Institutions.

At the State Hospital for the Insane at Mount Pleasant, a new wing has been constructed, to accommodate two hundred women; and five of the eight wards are already filled with patients. Present number of inmates: men, 414; women, 298; total, 712. Per capita cost, \$168 per annum.

At Independence, another detached building has been erected, with a capacity for one hundred patients. The rear centre building is being enlarged, also the laundry building, by which means a much larger number of female patients can engage in laundry work. Total number of inmates, 800. Per capita cost, \$170.

At the Institution for Feeble-minded, no radical changes have been attempted, but a continued effort has been made toward perfecting the already organized departments as speedily as facilities would permit. The completion of the first and second floors of the central or administration building has supplied needed conveniences in the day rooms and dormitories for fifty girls, additional school-room space, kitchen and dining-rooms, and officers' apartments. The past year has been one of considerable activity, there having been a greater number of admissions than for any previous year in the history of the

institution. The development of the industrial features of the work is growing more prominent, not only as a means of revenue to the State, but as an educational factor in fixing the attention and in cultivating will power over the defective nervous organization. Present number of inmates, 427. Per capita cost, \$155.87.

The Iowa College for the Blind is one of the oldest of our State institutions, and has made no new departures. Present number of inmates, 187. Per capita cost, \$198.

At the Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, another change has taken place in the superintendency, the present incumbent resigning, and resuming his former position as principal of the literary department, Mr. Rothrock, of Dubuque, being chosen as superintendent. Present number of inmates: boys, 149; girls, 131; total, 280. Per capita expenses, \$208.45.

At the Industrial School, Boys' Department, at Eldora, a broom factory, a tin shop, and a blacksmith shop have been started and a brass band organized since the last report. One family building has been erected at a cost of \$10,000, and a hospital building at a cost of \$500. Number of boys, 333. Expenses per capita, \$102.

At the Girls' Department at Mitchellville there has been an entire change in the management, the superintendent and matron retiring, and their places being filled by the appointment of C. C. Cory and wife. Eighty acres of land have been purchased, and a number of minor improvements made. Number of girls, 112. In the resignation, owing to absence from the State, of Mrs. Louise Hall, the woman member of the Board of Trustees, the institution has lost an efficient officer and the children an interested and painstaking friend. The vacancy has been filled by the appointment of Miss Maggie Appleton, of Sioux City.

After a series of years of exceptionally good health, the State Orphans' Home has passed through two epidemics: one of scarlet fever, lasting from January to April, with 2 deaths out of a total of 33 cases; and one of measles, lasting from April to June, with 158 cases and 1 death. Of the children here cared for, the parents of 35 are both living; 65 have fathers only; 108 have mothers only; 85 have neither. The average age is ten years. 24 are between the ages of fourteen and sixteen; 135, between the ages of ten and fourteen; 134, between three and ten; and 3, under three years of age. No industrial employments have yet been provided, though asked for by the management year after year. Gen. A. C. Litchfield, after eleven months' service, has resigned, much to the

regret of the friends of the Home. S. W. Pierce has again been called to its superintendency.

The last General Assembly appropriated the sum of \$75,000 for the purchase and preparation of grounds for a State Soldiers' Home and for the erection of suitable buildings; also, a further sum of \$25,000 for the maintenance of the Home for the year 1887. It has been the ambition of the board to do what has never been done before in the State in the erection of a State institution,—build and equip it ready for use with the original appropriation made for the purpose. The building is now nearly under roof, and it is expected that it will be ready for occupancy in about sixty days. Applicants for admission, unless having served in an Iowa regiment, must have resided in the State for three years next preceding the application. General estimates indicate that by January 1 at least five hundred applications will be received. As the institution will accommodate only three hundred, it has been announced that preference will be given first to veterans who are now in the poorhouses of the State and next to those who have been sustained by the public authorities. Those who have managed to exist through the kindness of personal friends and comrades will be last to receive admission, and then only if room remains for them.

At the Penitentiary at Fort Madison, an electric light plant has been added, and quite extensive repairs and some minor improvements have been made. The health of the convicts has been good. There is an excellent school-room and library, and all the necessary appliances for the proper conduct and management of the prison. Though not a "reformatory," in the recent sense of that term, the warden thinks he turns out men much improved morally as well as physically. Contract labor prevails; and within the last year there has been a difficulty in supplying the contractors with the specified number of convicts, for the reason that they were not to be had. At the Additional Penitentiary at Anamosa, the force of convicts is utilized in the building of the Prison for Criminal Insane and the Prison for Women, both of which are still in process of construction. Number of convicts at Anamosa, 301; at Fort Madison, 350. Cost per capita at Anamosa, \$96.12; at Fort Madison, \$69.18.

The Prisoners' Aid Association is going steadily forward in its good work, having by the dissemination of literature bearing upon their plan of work, holding public meetings, etc., created a more general sentiment in favor of such an effort, and removed very largely the common but unfounded belief that their work was one of maudlin

sentiment and sympathy. A large number of discharged convicts have secured employment, and such immediate aid and encouragement as they needed, through this Association.

Private Institutions.

Foremost among the private institutions may be mentioned two homes for aged women. The first, at Davenport, known as the Cook Home for Friendless Women, has also a provision for the transient assistance of young women over sixteen years of age. This institution, which is amply endowed, has been fully reported at previous Conferences. A Home for Aged Women was organized at Cedar Rapids, May 1, 1887. It is at present supported by private contributions, donations, etc. The county sending inmates is required to pay a small fee. One commodious, two-story brick building, with pleasant grounds, has been leased; and there are now five or six inmates.

The Christian Home at Council Bluffs is a charitable institution for the care and training of orphan and destitute children, supported wholly by free-will offerings. Since the beginning (1883), 163 children have here found shelter. Present number, 55. Per capita cost, \$100. The property of the institution, personal and real, amounts to \$10,000, including five frame buildings, printing office, etc. A weekly religious and family paper, the *Christian Home*, is published in its interests. The founder and superintendent is Rev. J. G. Lemen.

A Home for Friendless Children has been established in Des Moines by the Woman's Christian Temperance Union. It is maintained by gifts and donations, and is intended merely as a temporary refuge until suitable homes are found.

The Benedict Home at Des Moines, supported by the Women's Christian Temperance Union of the State, and the Benedict Retreat at Decorah, under the immediate supervision of Mrs. Benedict, both for the care of erring women, are doing good work.

The work of "The Associated Charities" has received more attention than heretofore during the past year. An organization has been effected at Clinton and at Davenport. At Davenport, a paid agent is maintained; and the work — which is well under way — has been reported directly to that department of the Conference.

The poor farms of the State of Iowa aggregate 16,373 acres, valued at \$901,498. Total number of inmates in the poorhouses throughout the State, 1,754, 1,061 of whom are men, and but 693 women. 157

are under sixteen years of age; 1,165 are between sixteen and sixty; 432 are over sixty. The total amount paid by the different county supervisors in both out-door and in-door relief during the past year is \$545,546.49.

Iowa Court Statistics for 1884-86.

	1884	1885	1886
Total amount of fines imposed by the district courts during the years stated,	\$75,581.43	\$65,543.80	\$117,624.00
Total amount of fines collected and paid into the county treasuries,	30,728.72	35,387.58	46,362.00
Total expenses of the counties on account of criminal prosecutions (not including district attorneys' fees),	413,349.77	379,580.81	421,424.00
Total amount paid district attorneys by the counties on account of criminal prosecutions,	26,232.32	26,239.57	31,648.00

Number of Convictions in Iowa.

For the year ending Sept. 30, 1882,	1,470
" " " " 1883,	1,377
" " " " 1884,	1,592
" " " " 1885,	1,339
" " " " 1886,	1,654

Partial Court Statistics for Year 1886-87.

On the thirteenth day of August, seven counties had filed complete criminal reports for the year 1886-87 with the Secretary of State; namely, the counties of Chickasaw, Dallas, Lyon, Ringgold, Washington, Wayne, and Wright.

The total number of convictions in these counties during the year 1886-87 was 37, and 55 during the previous year.

The total amount of fines imposed by the district courts of these counties during the year 1886-87 was \$1,988, and \$2,230 during the year previous.

The total amount of fines collected and paid into the county treasuries was \$760.70, and \$2,431.85 during the year previous.

The total expenses of the counties on account of criminal prosecutions (not including district attorneys' fees) during the year 1886-87 were \$10,702.27, and \$21,803.85 during the previous year.

Iowa Penitentiary Statistics, showing the Number of Convicts committed to the Two Penitentiaries of the State during Each Year from 1878 to 1886, inclusive

Year.	Fort Madison.	Anamosa.	Total.
Committed in 1878,	211	149	360
" " 1879,	198	123	321
" " 1880,	192	98	290
" " 1881,	194	75	269
" " 1882,	194	129	323
" " 1883,	211	138	349
" " 1884,	197	139	336
" " 1885,	191	172	363
" " 1886,	171	141	312
Totals,	1,759	1,164	2,923

Average number for the nine years,	324 7-9	
Committed in 1886, less than the average,	12 7-9	
" " " " in 1878,	48	
Per cent. of decrease between number in 1886 and 1878,		13 1/2%
Estimated population of the State in 1878,	1,472,100	
" " " " 1886,	1,859,200	
Increase in population,	387,100	26.29%
If convicts had increased in the same ratio with the population, the number committed in 1886 would have been	454	
In excess of the number committed,	142	
Between the years 1880 and 1886, the per cent. is slightly in favor of 1886.		

KANSAS.

C. E. FAULKNER, Salina.—The charitable institutions of Kansas are managed by a board of five trustees, officially known as "Board of Trustees of the Charitable Institutions of the State of Kansas." The powers and duties of this board extend to the construction and repair of buildings and to all matters relating to the government of the institutions committed to its care, but do not comprise the study of affairs and the work usually performed by boards of public charities. The sum of \$5,000 per annum is appropriated for the current biennial period, to pay the per diem and mileage of the members of the board. Monthly meetings of the board, or a committee thereof, are held at each institution, at which the accounts for the preceding month are audited and the affairs of the institution examined. The board has no central office, and its secretary receives the same compensation for services as the other members.

All statistical information relating to pauperism and crime in Kansas is supposed to be gathered by the several township and city assessors, under a decennial census, commencing with the year 1875 ; and that which relates to the blind, the deaf and the dumb, the insane and idiotic population of the State, is collected by the same officials annually.

The State Board of Agriculture, to whom these returns are forwarded, compile them for publication in their biennial reports. It is perhaps needless to state that this method of gathering statistics relating to pauperism and crime fails to secure fair information. It is hoped that legislative attention will soon be attracted to a study of the subject, and an improved method be established.

The following letter from the Secretary of the State Board of Agriculture explains the situation :—

STATE BOARD OF AGRICULTURE,
TOPEKA, KAN., July 27, 1887.

Hon. C. E. FAULKNER, Secretary Board of Trustees State Charitable Institutions, Salina, Kansas:

Dear Sir,—Replying to your inquiry relating to the statistics concerning pauperism and crime in Kansas (which, under existing laws, should have been collected in 1885, and incorporated in the report of this board containing the census statistics), I have to say that the returns, as received at this office, were so unsatisfactory in the method of taking or collecting, and so manifestly incomplete, that it was apparent their publication would be misleading and destitute of public value. It was therefore determined to omit them from the published census reports.

Yours very truly,

WILLIAM SIMS, *Secretary O. K. S.*

The annual statistics referred to have not all been returned to the department at this date by the several counties, and are also omitted.

The dates of organization of the several institutions, value of their property, and number cared for are exhibited in the following table: —

Institution.	Act of Organization.	Acres of Land in Site.	Value of Land, B'ldings, and Equipment	Total Admissions since Organization.	Number remaining June 30, '87.	Estimated Number to care for during Present Biennial P'r'd, and Amount appropriated.		Remarks.
						No.	Appropriations.	
Insane Asylum, Osawatomie.	Nov. 1, 1866.	215	\$429,659	1,511	478	500	\$211,000	Total deaths, 300.
Insane Asylum, Topeka.	Mar. 5, 1875.	180	\$668,167	1,461	599	675	\$283,500	Total deaths, 187.
Reform School.	Mar. 14, 1879.	160	\$135,000	213	140	200	\$70,000	
Deaf and Dumb.	Feb. 18, 1866.	17½	\$165,000	485	202	225	\$90,000	No. teachers, 13. Average pay of, \$561.53 per year.
Blind.	Mar. 13, 1868.	10	\$145,000	241	87	85	\$37,870	
Feeble-minded Youth.	Mar. 8, 1881.	40	\$30,000	80	45	90	\$38,000	Occupied present b'ldings Apr., '87.
Soldiers' Orphans' Home.	Mar. 11, 1885.	160	\$67,800	10	75	\$30,000	Just opened.

The total number of persons under the care of the institutions mentioned, on June 30, 1887, was 1,531. Provision has been made for the care of an average number of 1,850 persons during the biennial period ending on June 30, 1889, by the appropriation of the aggregate sum of \$760,370 for salaries and wages and maintenance and repairs.

The State is suffering from the lack of legislation to secure protection from alien dependants. The attention of the legislature has been directed to this subject, and also to a needed revision of lunacy laws, but so far without avail. This arises from the difficulty of securing the attention of members during the pressing work of a short legislative session rather than from any opposition to the measures proposed.

The State has organized an Industrial Reformatory upon the New York plan, and buildings are in process of erection at Hutchinson. This institution is for the reception of male criminals between the

ages of sixteen and twenty-five, not known to have been previously sentenced to a State prison. The discipline is to be reformatory, and agricultural and mechanical industry may be resorted to.

The State Penitentiary contains about 900 prisoners. Coal mining is carried on upon land adjoining the penitentiary, either leased or owned by the State; and the labor of a portion of the prisoners not engaged in mining is contracted to manufacturers of wagons, the shops for which are located upon the prison grounds. The penitentiary is admirably managed, and is self-supporting.

A healthy public interest is being developed in the State concerning the causes of crime and the best means for its prevention and suppression.

LOUISIANA.

Rev. CHARLES A. ALLEN, New Orleans.—I have been so busy with my own ministerial work that I have been able to give very little attention during the past year to our New Orleans Conference of Charities, and I have had nothing to write as your corresponding secretary. Still, I can report progress; that is, our local Conference of Charities has been growing stronger, more popular, and more efficient. It is doing a better work than ever in New Orleans, and is slowly educating the people of our city into better ideas of charity. Its affairs have been wholly administered by committees of ladies, who represent all denominations,—Protestant, Catholic, and Hebrew. It is very hard to excite much interest in it among the business and professional men. Still, they approve it, and contribute toward its expenses, and are gradually coming to see the merits of it. Reforms and novelties of all kinds move slowly in the South-land; but this reform has at least rooted itself securely now, and will bear more fruit from year to year. Unfortunately, no one but myself has been willing to take any responsibility in the organizing and general oversight of the work; and my work has been volunteer and gratuitous, in odd moments taken from the engrossing duties of a city pastorate, so that I could not look after any charity questions or opportunities or needs beyond the limited range of this work of organizing our New Orleans Conference of Charities.

I have just been appointed on the Commission of Prisons and Asylums, a volunteer body appointed by the city government. This commission has already effected some important reforms in the city, and is now aiming at a reform of our prison.

MARYLAND.

A. E. WARNER, Baltimore.—The situation in regard to the State Board of Charities and Corrections is this. The largest part of the charitable work in Maryland is done by the city of Baltimore. The estimate for the next year is about \$234,000 for the poor of the city. I think that city is somewhat peculiar in its method of farming out other classes of the indigent or dependent people to private societies or societies that have private charters, and paying so much for each one taking care of them. A considerable amount of money is spent in that way. There is no out-door relief in Baltimore. The city formerly appropriated some thousands of dollars, to be spent for the poor; but this was cut off. Trouble with labor in prisons has been experienced there and in the county jail. In those places, the prisoners are now idle, because the contract system has been abolished and nothing else has been substituted.

The Charity Organization Society proposes to secure some better legislation during the coming year, if possible, in regard to the suppression of street beggars in the cities; for, as the law now stands, there is no possibility of arresting a beggar unless a policeman sees fit to do it, and the policemen do not see fit to do it. The State Prison's Aid Association does most of the work of supervising the prisons, and it is all voluntary. Mr. Griffith, superintendent, and Mr. Lincoln, agent, of the society, have visited most of the institutions in the State, and have used the press to keep them respectable.

MASSACHUSETTS.

H. S. SHURTLEFF, Boston.—As Corresponding Secretary for the State of Massachusetts of the fourteenth annual session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, I have the honor to present the following report for the year 1886-87:—

1. *Legislation.*

The leading acts of legislation in regard to the insane have been:

(1) The Hospital District Law, which took effect July 1, 1887, and which divides Massachusetts for the first time into definite districts for the commitment of such insane persons as need to go to the hospitals of the State and of the city of Boston, to be supported at the public charge. To each of the old State hospitals at Danvers, Northampton, Taunton, and Worcester is assigned a special district in its immediate locality; while the county of Suffolk, which commits

more patients than any other, is required to divide its patients equally and alternately between three of these hospitals, the new hospital at Westborough, and the Boston Lunatic Hospital, sending a fifth part to each of the five. This law is expected to equalize the distribution of the insane among the different hospitals, and to avoid inconvenient distances both for the committing officers and for the friends of the patients.

(2) The law of the same date permitting the criminal insane to be removed from the hospitals which contain recent cases and brought together in a chronic asylum apart from the other insane. This legislation is mild and tentative, but it is expected to result in a separation almost complete between the ordinary insane and those of criminal habits and antecedents.

In regard to prisons, three laws of general interest have been enacted. The first (in order of time) provides for the employment by the commissioners of prisons of two agents whose business it shall be to obtain employment for prisoners discharged from the Massachusetts Reformatory, and to investigate the histories of prisoners committed to the State Prison, Massachusetts Reformatory, and Women's Prison. The second provides for the punishment of habitual criminals, imposing a penalty of twenty-five years in the State prison upon any person who, having previously served two sentences of three years each, or more, in any State, shall be convicted of a felony. The third abolishes the contract labor system in the prisons.

The only important prison legislation which was proposed and failed was a bill authorizing the establishment of a State asylum for inebriates. This bill passed the House without opposition, but was defeated in the Senate on an adverse report of the treasury committee, solely on the ground that it did not reach the committee until the last day of the session, and was therefore too late to be considered.

In regard to the charities, two acts of importance have been passed, the first of which makes a more effective provision for the removal of children from city almshouses, where they have been accumulating to the number of one hundred and fifty or more in all, because the act of 1881 was not carried out with uniformity, and for the placing of them in families.

Under this new law, more than half of these children have already been removed, and all the rest will have been before the cold weather. The second provides more stringent regulations to prevent the sending to the State almshouse of persons who are too sick to be so removed with safety.

2. *Expenses of the State Establishments.*

The appropriations made during 1887 for the Massachusetts prisons have been unusually large, and their expenses are much greater than ever before. In the charitable establishments, this is not the case to any great extent, although the constant increase in the number of the insane causes the whole cost of the lunatic hospitals and asylums to augment considerably from year to year. This year, a new hospital has been opened at Westborough, which will add some \$60,000 to the annual cost of maintaining the insane; and the new asylum at Bridgewater has also been opened, without materially increasing this cost, because the weekly rate of support there is considerably less than in the State hospitals from which the patients are taken.

The appropriations made for the three State prisons in 1887, as compared with the appropriations and expenditures in 1886, are as follows:—

State Prisons.	1886.		1887.
	Appropriations.	Expenditures.	Appropriations.
State prison at Charlestown,	\$174,000	\$114,973.15	\$122,500
Massachusetts Reformatory (men), . . .	136,000	149,407.42	152,000
Reformatory Prison (women),	62,800	60,213.43	61,500
Total,	\$322,800	\$324,594.00	\$336,000

The actual net expenditure by the State in these prisons was much less than the sum here set down, because the earnings from labor were paid into the Treasury. These earnings will not be materially different this year from those in 1886, which were \$60,662.16. There are also to be deducted receipts from other sources amounting to \$15,690.42, leaving the net cost of the prisons of the State \$248,241.42. The above expenditure was incurred for an average number of 1,385 prisoners, and is in addition to the cost of maintaining the county prisons, which in 1886 amounted to \$251,000 for an average of 2,593 prisoners, and the municipal prison of Boston, where the net cost was \$85,000 for an average of 980 prisoners. The aggregate cost of the State, county, and municipal prisons of Massachusetts in 1886 amounted to \$660,594, and the average number of prisoners to 4,958.

The appropriations and expenditures arranged as above in the State charitable institutions are as follows for the two years:—

Charitable Institutions.	1886.		1887.
	Appropriations.	Expenditures.	Appropriations.
State Almshouse,	\$94,800	\$94,042.47	\$94,000
State Workhouse,	43,000	42,917.23	52,400
State Primary School,	54,000	53,224.16	54,000
Lyman School (for boys),	29,500	27,971.19	29,500
State Industrial School (for girls),	18,000	17,998.76	18,000
School for the Feeble-minded,	27,000	23,077.26	30,000
Insane Persons in Hospitals and Families,	165,000	159,228.44	177,000
Total,	\$431,300	\$417,459.51	\$454,900

The increase in the appropriations for this year is considerable, but almost wholly for the support of those insane persons for whom the State directly pays. The expenditure will be considerably less than the appropriation, but will be greater in 1887 than in 1886 on account of increase in numbers.

The expenditure by the 350 cities and towns for the support of their poor, in addition to what the State pays, was in 1886 \$1,731,344 for an average number of 7,765 paupers fully supported and 17,643 others partially supported, and including the sum of \$129,000 for the expenses of management. In 1887, judging by the returns now in, the expenditure will exceed \$1,725,000 for about the number of 8,000 paupers fully and 17,000 partially supported by the cities and towns.

In these last numbers of persons are included the poor aided under the system of out-door relief, for which the State pays the cost, amounting in 1886 to some \$55,000 and to about the same amount this year. This amount, however, is not included in the \$1,725,000 as given above, but is to be added thereto, as are also the cost of the board of children in families, about \$35,000, and that of transportation, removal, and burial of paupers by the State, something more than \$20,000.

The appropriations for the expenses of administration of the State Board of Lunacy and Charity for the year 1887 are as follows:—

General expenses of board,	\$1,600
Salary and expenses, Clerk and Auditor,	1,700
Department of Inspector of Charities,	9,500
Department of In-door Poor,	25,500
Department of Out-door Poor,	17,500
Salary and expenses of Agent for prosecution of certain offences,	2,000
Expenses of Auxiliary Visitors,	1,350
Total,	\$59,150

There has apparently been no increase of pauperism in Massachusetts this year, although both population and immigration have increased.

MICHIGAN.

L. C. STORRS, Lansing.—The legislature of 1887, after a session of some five months, adjourned in June. Early in the session, a bill was introduced in the House to abolish the Board of Corrections and Charities, which, when placed upon its passage, received but sixteen favorable votes. A bill providing for indeterminate sentences in Michigan passed both Houses, but failed to become a law, dying on the governor's hands after the close of the session. An effort was made to provide a home for the feeble-minded; but the bills introduced in both branches of the legislature providing for such a home were very unpopular, and met with opposition from the start, received an unfavorable report from the committees, were laid upon the table, where, in spite of many petitions favoring such a home received from many quarters, they were lying on adjournment. There is, however, in our State a private school and home for the feeble-minded, at Kalamazoo, organized by Dr. C. T. Wilbur, who for many years was connected with the Illinois Asylum for Feeble-minded Children. This school was opened in May, 1884, and for two years has been filled to its utmost capacity. Pupils are admitted from all parts of the country.

Laws were enacted providing for the arrest and care of children who are on the road to crime, though not yet criminals; for the taking of children from the custody of persons unfit to have the charge of children and placing them in proper homes; for surrounding with safeguards children brought from other States and placed in homes in Michigan, and the placing them made subject to the same conditions which exist in placing the children from our own State Public School at Coldwater.

The law providing for a Board of County Jail Inspectors was amended so as to make the Judge of Probate the chairman (the old law provided none); and the report formerly filed with the Circuit Judge is, under the amendment, to be made to the Board of County Supervisors,—a duplicate, as formerly, to be sent the State Board of Corrections and Charities.

Three of our insane asylums have received appropriations for building cottages, to hold fifty patients each, for chronic cases, to cost about \$300 per capita. The Asylum for Insane Criminals is (as our other asylums are) overcrowded. The proposition to ask for an

appropriation to enlarge the building was abandoned on the ground that its location, close to the State House of Correction, was very objectionable; and a bill was introduced providing for the purchase of ground and the erection of a new building for this asylum apart and independent of any penal institution. The bill was very favorably reported by the committee to which it was first referred; but the committee on appropriation, to which it was afterward referred, failed to report it back. This was hardly surprising to its friends, considering that other large appropriations were being considered by our legislature, and indeed made; but the full and favorable report obtained from one of the Senate committees, it is considered, will prove a great help in pushing this measure to a favorable conclusion in the future.

The reports to the Board of Corrections and Charities from the four insane asylums in the State for the quarter ending March 31, 1887, show 2,104 inmates against 1,785 for same period of 1886. The reports of insane in our poorhouses are made annually (July 1), and are now being received, so that a comparison between 1886 and 1887 cannot be made at this time; but between 1885 and 1886 there was a difference of only four. Doubtless, the report of 1887 will show little change, and will aggregate some four hundred, including those in the Wayne County Asylum, the only county asylum we have in our State.

Our county agents report for the year ending Sept. 30, 1886, arrests of juvenile offenders, 665. Of these, 329 were discharged or returned to parents; in 65 cases, sentence was suspended during good behavior; 87 were fined; and 218 sent to our reform schools. These agents report 230 homes found for children from our State Public and Reform Schools, and that they have visited during the year 525 of the children placed in homes from our State institutions. The section of the County Agency Law which provided for the placing of a child, after sentence to a reformatory, in the charge of an agent to be conveyed there by him or under his direction, was only permissive. This was amended so as to make it mandatory.

MINNESOTA.

H. H. HART, St. Paul.—The St. Paul meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction was of great benefit to our State. Public attention was drawn to these subjects as never before.

The legislature of 1887 passed several important acts. A State Reformatory for Young Men was established and located at St. Cloud.

A State Soldiers' Home was established, to be located at the Falls of Minnehaha; and, in addition to the appropriations for the said home, a tax of one-tenth of a mill was levied upon all taxable property, to create a fund for the relief of ex-soldiers and their families, said funds to be administered by the trustees of the State Soldiers' Home. A third hospital for the insane was established and located at Fergus Falls, and appropriations were made for buildings to accommodate three hundred patients. An appropriation of \$50,000 was made for additional provision for the insane at Rochester. A bill was passed for the removal of the State Reform School from its present location in the city of St. Paul to a site which has since been selected near Red Wing, where more land and better drainage and water privileges can be obtained. The land now occupied by the Reform School can be sold for a sum sufficient to purchase land and erect new buildings, which are to be on the cottage plan. An appropriation of \$70,000 was made for a central building and additional detached buildings for the State public school at Owatonna. An appropriation of \$45,000 was made for the feeble-minded, which, it is expected, will be used for providing a custodial building.

Minnesota adheres to the policy by which provision has been made for all insane persons in State institutions. The present capacity of the two insane hospitals is eighteen hundred. The legislature has made provision for five hundred more, making a total capacity of twenty-three hundred. The number of patients now in the two hospitals is sixteen hundred.

The law establishing the State Reformatory for Young Men was drawn with great care, and submitted to the criticism of leading specialists, and is thought to be very complete. It provides for a board of managers consisting of six members, not more than three of whom shall belong to the same political party. They hold office for a term of six years, one member going out each year. The board is to appoint the superintendent, and to "have power to remove him for cause, after opportunity shall be given him to be heard on written charges. All other officers shall be appointed by the superintendent, and removable at his pleasure." "Any person not exceeding thirty years of age, nor less than sixteen years of age, who has never before been convicted of crime, may, in the discretion of the court before which said person is tried, be sentenced to the State Reformatory." Authority is given for the transfer of incorrigibles to the State prison; also, for the transfer from the State prison to the Reformatory of first offenders, in special cases. A system of marks is to be estab-

lished, and a parole system; but it is provided that "no petition or other form of application for the release of any prisoner shall be entertained by the managers." The system of contract labor is prohibited. It is made the duty of the managers, "either by the allotment of piece-work to the convict, and crediting him with all over-work at current rates which similar labor commands, or in such other mode as may, in their discretion, seem most desirable, to make such provision for the pecuniary assistance of the prisoner on his discharge or the support of his family while he is in confinement as may seem to them proper, provided that such allowance shall not exceed twenty per cent. of the earnings of the prisoner."

It is further provided that "it shall be the duty of the board of managers, either themselves or through some prisoners' aid society to be organized by them, to exercise a supervision over all discharged prisoners, with a view to keep them in the paths of honesty."

This bill passed the legislature without any objection in either house, preparation having been made by a public meeting called by the State Board of Corrections and Charities in December, 1886, which was addressed by the Hon. Gordon E. Cole, of St. Paul. Great credit is also due to the Hon. F. M. Crosby, one of the district judges of Minnesota, for his diligent efforts, and to the leading newspapers of the State for their wise and continuous advocacy of the measure.

The following is a list of the appropriations for the fiscal years ending July 31, 1887, 1888, and 1889:—

Appropriations for Current Expenses.

	1887.	1888.	1889.
For the insane,	\$256,360	\$294,840	\$294,840
Deaf, dumb, and feeble-minded,	85,000	90,000	95,000
State Public School,	7,000	12,000	15,000
State Reform School,	35,000	40,000	40,000
State Prison,	75,000	73,000	75,000
State Soldiers' Home,		10,000	20,000
	<u>\$458,360</u>	<u>\$519,840</u>	<u>\$539,840</u>

Special Appropriations (Building, etc.).

For the insane hospitals,	\$144,030	\$26,500	\$75,000
School for the Feeble-minded,	17,500	45,000	
State Public School,	18,000	35,000	35,000
State Reform School,		2,000	2,000
State Prison,	55,000	30,000	30,000
State Reformatory for Young Men,		50,000	50,000
State Soldiers' Home,	10,000	40,000	
	<u>\$244,530</u>	<u>\$228,500</u>	<u>\$192,000</u>
Total current and special appropriations, \$702,890		\$748,340	\$731,840

A high license law was passed, establishing a rate of \$1,000 per annum in all cities having more than twenty thousand inhabitants and \$500 per annum in all smaller towns and villages. The act is supplemented by a vigorous enforcement act, establishing fine and imprisonment as a penalty for its violation.

Some steps have been taken for the organization of a prisoners' aid society, to operate in conformity with the State reformatory law.

There is continued improvement in the new county jails, all of which provide for separation of prisoners.

The influence of the State Board of Corrections and Charities is apparently increasing with the legislature and with the managers of State and county institutions.

MISSOURI.

Rev. T. P. HALEY, Kansas City.—Since the last meeting of the Conference there has been held a regular session of the legislature. The appropriations bill shows the following sums appropriated for the eleemosynary institutions of the State for the years 1887 and 1888:—

For Lunatic Asylum No. 1, located at Fulton,	\$113,600
" " " " 2, " " St. Joseph,	117,000
" " " " 3 (not yet finished), located at Nevada,	49,127
" State patients in St. Louis Asylum,	70,000
Total for insane,	\$349,727
For Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb located at Fulton,	\$107,000
For State School for the Blind, located at St. Louis,	46,000
For the Missouri Penitentiary, located at Jefferson City. Chargeable to the earnings of the Missouri Penitentiary, arising from the labor of convicts, the keeping of United States prisoners, or from any source of income of said institution, the sum of	350,000
Also, the further sum, for various purposes, of	250,000

In the absence of a State Board of Charities, the governor appoints a legislative committee to visit the charitable and penal institutions of the State in vacation. From their report, the following extracts are given:—

As the duties of your committee embrace the making of such recommendations as may be deemed pertinent, we desire here, at the very outset, to offer a suggestion which the committee are unanimous in regarding as of very high importance. These public in-

stitutions should be under the immediate and constant supervision of some executive officer or officers, whose duty it should be to see that the laws governing their management are faithfully enforced, and that the large revenues are accounted for and applied economically, and strictly within the provisions of their aims and purposes. The old system of appointing committees out of the legislature during its sessions was abandoned, not only by reason of its interference with the legislative duties of the senators and representatives, but by reason, also and chiefly, of its inefficiency. The act of 1881, providing for the appointment of one general legislative committee to visit the institutions of the State in vacation, was, doubtless, a wise step in the right direction. But about one month is the longest time, under its provisions, possible to be allotted to the committee for the performance of their work, or, say, an average of less than three days to each institution, including the time spent in travel to reach them, scattered as they are over all parts of the State. This furnishes a most inadequate opportunity to investigate all the transactions of a management reaching back a period of two years. These transactions and all the minutiae entering into them and into the discharge of these important trusts should be subject to the scrutiny of some authority outside the boards, and *closely looked after as they occur*. And these institutions should be visited many times during each biennial period (pp. 4, 5.)

This extract your corresponding secretary regards as a strong plea for the creation of a State Board of Charities, which he has pressed on the attention of the governor and legislature.

This report shows the number of patients in asylums as follows:—

No. 1,	557
No. 2,	387
St. Louis Insane Asylum,	513
St. Louis Poorhouse,	419
Total in asylums,	1,876

The report also shows the number of pupils in the Institution for the Deaf and Dumb to be for the past two years an average of 198; in the Institution for the Blind, an average of pupils, 90.

The last legislature passed an act and made an appropriation for the establishment of a Training School for Minors. Section 3 of said act declares: "The object of the Training School for Minors shall be to provide a home and proper training school for such minors as may be committed to their charge; and they shall be maintained by voluntary contributions, excepting as hereinafter provided."

Section 4 declares: "Every minor who frequents any street, alley, or other place for the purpose of begging or receiving alms, or who

shall have no permanent place of abode, proper parental care or guardianship, or sufficient means of subsistence, or who from some other cause shall be a wanderer through the streets or alleys or other public places, or who shall live with or frequent the company of or consort with reputed thieves or other vicious persons, may, on proper procedure, be committed to said training school."

It is confidently hoped that the establishment of such training schools in our State will relieve us from the disgrace hitherto so often witnessed; to wit, the imprisonment of children in county jails.

The legislature also passed an act and made an appropriation for the establishment of an Industrial Home for Girls. Section 1 declares: "There shall be established in this State an institution under the name and style of the State Industrial Home for Girls, and the sum of forty thousand dollars is hereby appropriated for purchasing grounds and the erection and furnishing of suitable buildings."

Section 12 provides that "every girl over the age of seven years and under the age of twenty years, who shall be convicted in any court of competent jurisdiction of being a disorderly person, or of any offence not punishable by imprisonment for life, may, except in cases deemed incorrigible, be sentenced to said industrial home until she shall reach the age of twenty-one years, if such court or magistrate shall deem the girl so committed (convicted) a fit person to be committed to said home."

This comprises the legislation of importance in regard to charity and penology in the State of Missouri during the last session.

NEBRASKA.

J. A. GILLESPIE, Omaha.—The deaf, dumb, and feeble-minded youth of the State are now provided for in three separate State schools, all organized and furnished for the special instruction of these classes. The youngest of these—the Asylum House for the Feeble-minded—has a suitable building, costing \$45,444, located on a forty-acre tract of land in the suburbs of Beatrice, given by the citizens of that place. It is to be supported by a State tax of one-eighth of a mill. The present buildings will accommodate seventy pupils; but there are now in the State over six hundred feeble-minded persons, of whom more than half are under eighteen years of age. The next legislature will be asked for additional room. A separate department for adult custodial cases is needed.

The Institute for the Blind, now in its thirteenth year, has an attendance of 27 pupils, 6 of them new admissions. A new main

building, boiler-house, and laundry, to cost \$42,000, have been begun, which will enlarge the present capacity to about eighty.

At the Institute for the Deaf and Dumb, the attendance last term was 102, of whom 10 were newly admitted. The new cottage dormitory for the smaller boys, provided for by the legislature of 1884-85, is completed and occupied. \$10,000 has been appropriated for a new wing, to contain a kitchen and dining-room. A distinguishing feature of the methods of instruction pursued is that of aural development, or the development of partial or latent hearing.

The insane are cared for in the State Hospital for the Insane at Lincoln, where, with insufficient room, 581 patients have been treated, of whom 206 were newly admitted and 197 discharged. Non-restraint is advocated, and practised with only such modifications as imperfect arrangements make inevitable. Dr. H. P. Matthewson, late superintendent, has been superseded by Dr. W. M. Knapp. A new hospital has been built at Norfolk, on a 320-acre tract of land given by the citizens of Norfolk. Its occupancy has been delayed by want of funds for running expenses; but applications for admission already exceed the capacity of the buildings, and the last legislature appropriated \$94,700 for additional wards, chapel, kitchen, bakery, laundry, barn, and ice-house. Dr. E. A. Kelley is superintendent. Still a third hospital, for incurable cases, has been provided for by an appropriation of \$75,000 for a building to be located at Hastings, for which plans have been drawn. The crowded state of the hospital at Lincoln has necessitated the removal of most of the incurable cases to the almshouses or jails of their own counties.

At the Home for the Friendless at Lincoln, 76 adults and 198 children (a total of 274) have been cared for the past year. There were 189 admissions and 155 discharges. A new boiler-house and laundry, costing \$6,000, has been added to the buildings. The last legislature appropriated \$32,500 for maintenance. But this is largely supplemented by private benevolence through the twelve ladies who constitute the board of managers.

A Soldiers' Home was established by the last legislature, with an appropriation of \$30,000 for a building, to be located at Grand Island, on condition that 640 acres of land be given for a site. Captain Hammond has been appointed superintendent.

An appropriation of \$16,000 was made for a building for an Industrial Home for Unfortunate Women and Girls, to be located upon a site containing not less than ten acres of land, not yet selected.

The State Industrial School at Kearney has had 176 pupils in

its care, of whom 78 were new admissions and 14 were dismissed. Carpentry is taught in addition to intellectual training. Good conduct after one year's instruction secures dismissal. Four new buildings, to cost \$36,500, are in process of erection. The substitution of "industrial" for "reform" in the name of this school is a gratifying indication of the healthy growth of a correct public sentiment respecting the proper work of such a school.

In the State Penitentiary there have been 334 prisoners (average), including 4 women, the past year. There were 108 admissions and 106 discharges. About \$40,000 will be expended upon a new shop building, and about \$4,000 for a water reservoir. A new ten-year lease of the convict labor of the State has recently been made.

An effort was made at the last session of the legislature to secure the passage of a bill to establish a State Board of Charities and Correction, but the bill never passed beyond the committee room. Such a board, in order to be effective, would require the services of a salaried secretary, who would be a new State officer; and at present the State constitution does not permit the creation of any new office. Further effort will be made, at the proper time, to secure such modification of the constitution as will make it practicable to organize a State board with proper authority.

In the absence of a State board, the Women's Associate Charities of Omaha is doing effective work. Through its efforts, the Industrial Home for women and girls was organized. It is now working for a home for dependent children. Some efforts toward this end were made at the last legislature, and will be repeated with increased backing at the next. The Women's Associate Charities also contemplates a home for the aged and a hospital for the sick.

The Women's Christian Association of Omaha have just purchased a building, and will enter it about September 1. The relief department has thus far been very prominent in the work, but they hope soon to open a boarding-house for young working girls. Two lots have been given, as a site for a home for old ladies and children. Funds for this building, to the extent of \$10,000, have been promised. The Tenth Street Mission is doing a good work, having as adjuncts an industrial school and a Helping Hand Society.

St. Joseph's Hospital at Omaha is under the government of the Catholic Church, sustained by donations. It has cared for over six hundred patients during the year.

For the last two years ending June 1, 1887, the Women's Christian Temperance Union of Omaha has carried on the Buckingham Home

on Twelfth Street. It is a refuge for men, women, and children who are friendless. Not less than \$3,000 was raised in Omaha for the support of that home. Owing to the rise in rents, it was given up, but head-quarters for the Women's Christian Temperance Union have been opened near by, where the same work will be carried forward.

The experience of the Women's Christian Temperance Union in Omaha led the State Women's Christian Temperance Union to see the great need of an industrial home for unfortunate girls and women; and the effort was put forth which resulted in the passage by our last legislature of the bill providing for such a home. Though strictly a Women's Christian Temperance Union measure, the bill provided that the management of the institution should be given into the hands of the Women's Associate Charities of Nebraska.

The Omaha Orphan Asylum, under the supervision of the Sisters of Mercy, was founded Sept. 1, 1882. At that time, Right Reverend Bishop O'Connor, feeling the pressing necessity of furnishing shelter for the many homeless, helpless children of his flock, provided from his own personal resources a building for the establishment of this charitable institution. The infant institute has since been struggling to maintain itself. Yet, in all its trials, its charity has extended to all,—its doors ever open to the homeless little ones, without regard to rank or religion. Since the establishment of the institute, two hundred children have made it their home. From sixty-five of these children, the Sisters have received no remuneration whatever. Fifty remain in the Orphanage at present.

The above brief statement is sufficient to prove to the public the necessity for more strenuous efforts on the part of those who are interested in the welfare of the homeless orphan.

The Children's Hospital of Omaha is owned by the Cathedral Chapter of the Episcopal church of Nebraska, and was founded in October, 1881. The present building, which stands on a lot on Dodge Street, thirty-three by one hundred and twenty feet in dimensions, was erected in 1883, at a cost of \$14,000; and, while it contains some structural defects from a hospital point of view, it seems well adapted to the purposes for which it is used, and in the way of sanitary arrangements there seems little to be desired. The hospital has accommodation for eighteen patients, and is under the management of a competent trained nurse, who has introduced all the order, cleanliness, and conveniences of the leading hospitals of the country.

NEW JERSEY.

Dr. EZRA M. HUNT, Trenton.—While I am not able to report anything very encouraging, yet I believe it can be said that there is a general increase of interest in the subject of charities and correction. We have, as you know, a Council of Charities and Correction appointed by the legislature; but, because it had an appropriation of only \$1,000, it has attempted but little. In my judgment, if it had taken a few institutions ready of access, and availed itself of the voluntary aid in addition which it could have secured, it would have shown the feasibility of its work and have received more aid.

The State Board of Health has continued its work as to sanitary conditions, and is able to make many other reforms by drawing the attention of individuals and officers to defects. Our State asylums are in many respects models. The eight county asylums have much improved. The State prison and the two penitentiaries and the two reform schools and the Newark City Home, or reform school, are well managed. All but two of our jails are in fair condition, and one or both of these will soon be altered. As to the management of the inmates of jails there are still great defects.

As I compare the condition of several of our institutions with what they were when first visited, there is much reason for encouragement. Yet so much remains to be done that the progress seems slow.

The State Charities Aid Association is doing a good work, which is entirely voluntary. It has auxiliary branches in three or four counties, and is so far recognized as having authority that, on application to a judge of the Supreme Court, visitors are appointed, with full power to investigate. It is looking after the jails and almshouses and in other ways creating a public sentiment.

NEW YORK.

Dr. C. S. HOYT, Albany.—The powers and duties of the New York State Board of Charities continue the same as heretofore reported, and its labors have been conducted with fair success during the past year. The various institutions subject to its inspection have made full reports; and the statistical and financial information regarding them, analyzed and tabulated, is given at length in its last annual report to the legislature. A summary of these tables furnishes the following:—

The value of property held for charitable and correctional purposes in the State, as appraised by the managers of the respective institu-

tions, Oct. 1, 1886, was \$52,138,192.45, as follows: by the State, \$10,681,397.02; by counties, \$2,654,847.86; by cities, \$4,348,500; by incorporated benevolent associations, \$34,453,447.57. Their indebtedness at the same time was \$3,161,994.81, thus making their net valuation \$48,976,197.64. Compared with the valuation of 1885, it shows increase as follows: in the State institutions, \$237,959.83; in the county institutions, \$60,584.38; in the incorporated benevolent institutions, \$2,543,112.27: total, \$2,841,656.48. The valuation of the city institutions was the same as reported Oct. 1, 1885. It will thus be seen that the tendency of charitable and correctional work in the State is in the direction of incorporated benevolent effort, about three-fifths of the property devoted to these purposes being held by incorporated benevolent associations; and their funds are steadily accumulating year by year. The total receipts of these institutions for the fiscal year ending Sept. 30, 1886, were \$13,362,659.61, as against \$12,453,311.04, the receipts for the preceding fiscal year, or an increase of \$909,348.57, derived from the following sources, namely: from the State, \$1,237,881.71; from counties, \$1,106,904.43; from cities, \$3,155,399; from individuals for the support of inmates, \$636,553.68; from legacies, donations, and contributions, \$2,313,503.52; from interest and dividends on investments, \$458,008.10; from all other sources, \$4,454,409.17. The expenditures for the year footed up \$12,027,990.01, as against \$11,538,739.86, an increase of \$489,250.15 over the expenditures of the preceding year, namely: for indebtedness existing at the beginning of the year, \$864,269.19; for salaries, wages, and labor, \$1,689,451.65; for provisions and supplies, \$2,350,622.05; for clothing, \$402,988.68; for fuel and lights, \$452,986.94; for furnishing, etc., \$182,004.06; for ordinary repairs, \$317,183.95; for buildings, improvements, and other extraordinary expenses, \$1,411,022.86; for investments, \$1,143,383.52; for all other purposes, \$3,214,077.11.

The number of persons in the custody and care of these various institutions of the State Oct. 1, 1886, was 63,335, as against 60,394 Oct. 1, 1885, being an increase of 2,941, classified as follows: insane, 13,538; idiotic and feeble-minded, 1,174; epileptic, 417; blind, 679; deaf-mutes, 1,366; orphan and dependent children, 20,949; juvenile delinquents and offenders, 4,436; adult prisoners in reformatories, 711; disabled soldiers and sailors, 936; hospital patients, 3,384; adult, aged, and infirm persons in incorporated homes and asylums, 6,251; poorhouse and almshouse inmates other than insane, idiotic, and feeble-minded, blind, deaf, and dumb, and epileptic,

9,494. The dispensaries extended medical and surgical aid to 349,619 out-door patients during the year; and 49,144 persons were temporarily relieved at their homes by various city and county officials from the public fund, at an expenditure of \$627,267.12.

The number of insane persons in the State Oct. 1, 1886, as before stated, was 13,538, as against 12,707 Oct. 1, 1885, of whom 6,175 were males and 7,363 females, under care as follows: in the State hospitals for the acute insane, 1,806; in the State asylums for the chronic insane, 2,708; in city asylums and city almshouses, 6,016; in county asylums and county poorhouses, 2,144; in private asylums, 638; in the State asylum for insane criminals, 198; and in the State asylum for insane immigrants, 28. Of those in the county institutions, all except about 300 are provided for in separate buildings, under the care of attendants, with medical supervision.

The returns regarding the insane for the past decade show a steady increase of this class each year in the State, in excess of the increase of population; and our energies are, annually, heavily taxed to provide for their shelter and care. The last legislature provided for the establishment of an additional State asylum for the insane at Ogdensburg, and appropriated \$100,000 for the purchase of lands and the erection of buildings. The affairs of the institution are committed to a board of managers appointed by the Governor and Senate. The title to the lands has been acquired, and it is expected that the erection of buildings will soon be entered upon.

Additional detached buildings are being put up at the Hudson River State Hospital for 500 chronic patients; and it is expected that some of these buildings, at least, will soon be opened. An appropriation of \$173,000 was made by the last legislature to extend the Buffalo State Asylum for 150 additional patients. Appropriations were also made at the Binghamton State Asylum for the chronic insane for additional lands and improvements, at the State Homœopathic Asylum for the erection of kitchen and bakery, etc., and at the State Lunatic Asylum, Utica, for the reconstruction and improvement of its wards. The Commission appointed, under the act of 1886, to determine the best method of furnishing additional accommodations for, and the expediency of providing farming lands for the occupation of, insane criminals, was authorized by the legislature of 1887 to select and purchase a site not exceeding 250 acres of suitable land, on which to erect an asylum for this class. An appropriation of \$300,000 was made therefor; and the Commission is empowered to procure plans and estimates for the construction of buildings adapted

to the requirements of the criminal insane, and to contract for their erection.

The legislative appropriations to the various institutions for their current expenses have been quite liberal, and are probably adequate to their purposes. The State Reformatory for Women at Hudson has been opened, and is now in successful operation. The accommodations of the State Custodial Asylum for Feeble-minded Women at Newark have been extended, so that it now has room for 250 inmates. An appropriation was made to rebuild the girls' department of the State Industrial School at Rochester, which was consumed by fire last year; and improvements are now being made in the dormitories of the New York House of Refuge. The several acts relating to the New York State Reformatory at Elmira were revised, consolidated, and amended by the last legislature, which will doubtless facilitate its work and increase its usefulness. The institutions for the blind, deaf-mutes, and feeble-minded are generally in good condition, and it is believed that they properly meet the present requirements of the State for these classes.

OREGON.

Rev. Dr. R. W. HILL.—Since our last Conference at St. Paul, a number of important changes have been made in the laws and policy of the State in relation to charities and corrections. In the first place, we have had an entire change in the administration. Our State institutions are controlled by a Board of Trustees composed of the Governor, Secretary of State, and State Treasurer; and, as none of our former State officials were re-elected at the general election held one year ago, there has been an entire change in the Board of Trustees. This has resulted also in a complete change throughout the asylum for insane and the State prison. We have new superintendents, wardens, nurses, guards; and, in fact, the new administration has made a clean sweep, which has been a matter of sincere regret, especially in regard to the asylum for the insane. It was hoped that it, at least, would have been taken out of politics; but, alas! the time has not yet been reached when our public officials are chosen for their merits rather than for their political influence. The new superintendents are men of character and ability, in every way excellent men, worthy of public trust; and we look for a careful administration of the prison and asylum under their management, but at the same time believe that the "spoils policy" should have no place where such interests are involved and changes should not be made for political reasons.

At the legislative session last winter, the following new laws relating to charities and corrections were made: (1) an act regulating the commitment of the insane, which permits the county judge, after examination with one or more physicians, to make commitment; (2) an act defining vagrants and providing a punishment for vagrancy by a fine of from \$20 to \$250, or imprisonment at hard labor, with ball and chain, from ten to twenty-five days; (3) an act to prevent the sale of liquors to minors; (4) an act providing for the maintenance of kindergartens as a part of the common school system; (5) an act regulating the sale of opium, chloral, etc. Besides these, two others may be mentioned,—one to regulate divorces, and a very lax law it is indeed, and another to provide for the extension, by a new wing, of the insane asylum. During the year, many improvements were made at the prison and asylum; and with the new wing at the latter there will be ample accommodation, it is to be hoped, for years to come for all the insane of our State. As the new executive was not in favor of a Pardon Board, it was abolished last winter; and thus we have taken another step backward. Perhaps, like the flow of the tide, it may be only to make greater progress soon. We attempted to get a reform school established and a State Board of Charities, but were unsuccessful in both matters. We shall try again. The trouble with us in Oregon is that we do not appreciate the benefits which would result from a change in the methods of management of our public institutions. We need enlightenment. The benefits of a State Board need to be made known more thoroughly and effectively; and last, but not least, we need a class of officials whose aims are less selfish, less for the advancement of political fortunes and more for the best interests of the State.

PENNSYLVANIA.

CADWALADER BIDDLE, Philadelphia.—No changes were made in the laws of the State during the late session affecting the Board of Public Charities. A joint committee was, however, appointed, composed of three members of the Senate and four members of the House of Representatives, to examine and report at the next session, to be held in 1889, whether any, and, if so, what changes in the law are necessary, to secure greater system and uniformity in the management of the institutions owned or aided by the Commonwealth. Appropriations somewhat larger than usual were made to the three classes of institutions; namely, those entirely under State manage-

ment, those uniformly aided by the State, although under private management, and those for miscellaneous charity. Many of these appropriations were, however, vetoed by the governor, owing to the failure of the new revenue bill to become a law from the omission of the president of the Senate to sign the bill in the presence of the Senate before the final adjournment of that body. The appropriations will therefore be about the same as those for the past two years.

Contracts have been made for the completion of the south wing of the Riverside Penitentiary in Allegheny County. When finished, the penitentiary will have capacity for nearly twelve hundred convicts.

The new Reformatory at Huntington is approaching completion, and a law was passed for its government somewhat similar to that of the Elmira Reformatory. The Allegheny county jail and the new wing of the Allegheny county workhouse are finished and occupied. A new jail, on plans approved by our board, is building at Indiana, in Indiana County. Lancaster and Lebanon Counties are both considering, and will doubtless decide to build new and approved jails.

The State Soldiers' and Sailors' Home at Erie has been in successful operation for a year, and additions are to be made to it whereby its capacity will be doubled.

Two new hospitals for medical and surgical cases have been opened during the past year: one at Sayre, in Bradford County; the other at Bradford, in McKean County.

Appropriations were made by the legislature to purchase ground and erect thereon four hospitals for injured persons in the mining regions,—one of them in the anthracite and three of them in the bituminous coal districts.

The Institution for the Deaf and Dumb at Scranton has received appropriations for maintenance for the two coming years; but, as the appropriation for the building was vetoed, it will be necessary for the managers to rent temporary quarters. It is proposed at this institution to give special prominence to the oral method of instruction.

Steps have been taken for the establishment of an additional Institution for the Blind at or in the immediate vicinity of Pittsburg. For this purpose, private subscriptions amounting to \$46,000 have been made.

During the past summer, a matron has been appointed in the county jail at Pittsburg. Efforts are also being made to have matrons appointed in the station houses of both Pittsburg and Allegheny City.

The building for the insane, in connection with the Philadelphia Almshouse, which was destroyed by fire, has been replaced by one erected on improved plans; and it is now open for the reception of patients.

A Home for Crippled Colored Children has lately been opened in Philadelphia, and is well managed. Several new hospitals and homes are building in Philadelphia and its vicinity. The Women's Homœopathic Hospital is sufficiently advanced to allow of its being occupied by patients.

Few changes in the management of the institutions have been made during the past year. Although in many instances much remains to be done, and in many the management is positively bad, on the whole a decided improvement is evident in both jails and almshouses, more especially the latter. Mr. George W. Starr and Col. Henry M. Boies, the former of Erie and the latter of Scranton, have been commissioned by the governor as members of the Board of Charities in place of Mr. Charles J. Harrah and Dr. John K. Lee; and Dr. Lee has been reappointed in place of E. Coppée Mitchell, Esq., deceased.

VIRGINIA.

JOHN B. CRENSHAW, Richmond.—As our legislature meets only biennially (in regular session), I have not been able to procure any fresh information in printed form, but have noticed through the paragraphs in the papers that the Southwestern Lunatic Asylum has been completed and quickly filled up, much to the relief of the jails in the different counties, where many poor lunatics had been confined for want of room in the asylums. I am sorry that I am unable at this time to furnish any statistics of the public and private charities of the State. It is very difficult to get parties throughout the State sufficiently interested to furnish me the necessary information.

In a recent conversation with our Governor, I was much gratified to hear him say that he had felt great need of the assistance of a State inspector for the prisons and public charities of the State. And, with his help, I feel confident that we shall be able at the next meeting of the legislature to have such an officer appointed, also matrons for the women's department of penitentiary, jails, etc.

WASHINGTON TERRITORY.

JAMES WICKERSHAM, Tacoma.—Aided by her great natural wealth and equable climate, Washington Territory is rapidly acquiring a

population of energetic people. With this new increase in population comes, of course, an increased demand for thorough and modern facilities for protecting her dependent and confining her delinquent classes. To meet this emergency, the last Legislative Assembly appropriated \$100,000 for a new insane asylum and \$60,000 for a new penitentiary.

The old Territorial insane asylum at Fort Steilacoom, near Tacoma, occupied the one-story wooden barracks used since 1849 by United States troops. The new building is in the old parade ground, and presents a handsome appearance. The main part is four stories high; while long wings extend north and south, three stories in height. It is well built of brick, and is covered with iron roof; lighted by electric lights and heated by steam. It has a large recreation hall, and the beds and rooms are fitted up in comfortable shape. It has all the modern improvements, and under the able management of Dr. J. W. Waughop will undoubtedly be productive of great good. It has a capacity for two hundred inmates, and is now about ready for occupancy.

The old Territorial penitentiary at Seatco, in Western Washington, with its wooden walls overflowing with vermin and filth, is now deserted. The new building is located at Walla Walla, in Eastern Washington. It is a large, rectangular brick building, surrounded by a high stone stockade, enclosing four or five acres. Within the building are three double tiers of Pauly steel cells, furnishing accommodations for two hundred inmates. With the improved corridor system and the guards on the stockade top, escapes are next to impossible.

Frank Payne, Esq., of Walla Walla, has been appointed superintendent. The old contract system in leasing out the convicts has ceased, and the Territory now has full charge of the penitentiary as well as the insane asylum.

Washington Territory can certainly claim praise for vast improvements in the care of her dependent and delinquent classes.

WEST VIRGINIA.

Rev. R. RUSH SWOPE, Wheeling.—In the last year, nothing new has been undertaken except the attempt to establish a hospital in the mining regions of the Kanawha Valley by the energetic Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church, Dr. Peterkin. The suffering among the miners from lack of some such establishment has been

very great in the past and when this building is opened, which will probably be in the fall, it will be an agency ministering to the physical as well as the moral and spiritual needs of the people for whom it is specially provided.

In the city of Wheeling, an attempt is being made to establish a Home for Friendless Women. Quite a sum has been subscribed for the purpose, and we hope soon to have this in operation in a humble way. Eventually, State aid will be asked in its behalf.

At the biennial session of the State legislature, held in January, charges were preferred against the management of the State Lunatic Asylum at Weston, and also against the authorities of the State Penitentiary at Moundville. Committees were appointed to investigate the matter. In the case of the asylum, the charges were not sustained; but, in the case of the penitentiary, the evidence adduced was sufficiently grave to compel the removal of the superintendent. Cruel floggings were administered, and other methods of torture resorted to, to secure discipline.

I visited the asylum at Weston, and found it greatly overcrowded; in some instances, six and even nine inmates being placed in rooms whose dimensions would not warrant such crowding together.

The discipline among the attendants also seemed to me of a loose character. It seems most unfortunate that politics should in any wise control such institutions. As long as such is the case, and they are regarded as positions with which to reward political service, the best results cannot be expected, nor will the best men be placed in charge.

WISCONSIN.

Dr. JOHN H. VIVIAN, Mineral Point.—Since the last report there have been few changes in the conduct or condition of our public charitable and penal institutions. Three new county asylums for the chronic insane have been constructed during the past year, one is now in process of building, and a small one is being enlarged. We hope by Jan. 1, 1888, to be able to say that there are no insane in any poorhouse or jail in the State of Wisconsin.

The population of our State and semi-State institutions, exclusive of officers and employees, was at last report, June 30, as follows:—

State Prison,	444
House of Correction, Milwaukee,	255
Industrial School for Boys, Waukesha,	337
Industrial School for Girls, Milwaukee,	192

School for the Blind, Janesville,	75
School for Deaf-mutes, Delavan,	197
School for Dependent Children, Sparta,	88
State Hospital for the Insane, Mendota,	522
Northern Hospital for the Insane, Oshkosh,	667
Milwaukee County Asylum,	340
In various county asylums for the chronic insane,	1,139

The weekly per capita cost during the last year of maintaining the insane in the various hospitals and asylums has been for current expenses:—

County Asylums for Chronic Insane,	\$1.70
Milwaukee County Asylum,	4.16
State Hospital,	3.46
Northern Hospital,	3.32

The amounts appropriated by the late legislature to the various State institutions, for current expenses for the coming two years, are as follows:—

State Hospital for Insane,	\$115,000
Northern Hospital for Insane,	131,000
School for Deaf-mutes,	80,000
School for Blind,	45,000
Industrial School for Boys,	75,000
State Prison,	30,000
Industrial School for Girls, semi-State (for repairs),	5,000
State School for Dependent Children, such sum as may be necessary.	

No appropriations were made for permanent improvements, except to the School for Dependent Children, to which \$65,000 was appropriated for the construction of a main building and two cottages.

The following are the principal changes made by the late legislature in the laws affecting our charitable and penal institutions:—

Twenty-one years, instead of eighteen, was restored as the maximum age for the release of children from the Industrial Schools; and the maximum age of commitment was increased to eighteen instead of sixteen years.

All plans for poorhouses, jails, and county asylums must be submitted to the Board of Charities and Reform for approval. The board has power to condemn certain jails and police stations, and to prohibit their use. All basement jails and police stations are prohibited.

Uniformity in the management of county asylums for the chronic insane is secured by requiring that they be managed by a board of

trustees who appoint the superintendents, the latter appointing the other employees, subject to the approval of the trustees. The charge for board and medical treatment in the State hospitals and county asylums, for those able to pay, is limited to three dollars per week.

The Board of Trustees of the Milwaukee County Asylum (semi-State) was changed on the recommendation of the Board of Charities, such recommendation being the result of an investigation into its management, ordered by the governor.

Counties are required to levy a special tax for the relief of disabled soldiers, if there are any, and thus prevent their being sent to poor-houses. The State is to pay to the Wisconsin Veterans' Home, incorporated in the name of the Grand Army of the Republic, three dollars per week toward the subsistence of each inmate of this new institution. It will be on the cottage plan,—a central building for administrative purposes, dining-rooms, laundry, etc., and a series of two-roomed cottages to cost about two hundred dollars each, each cottage to be the home of two veterans, or a veteran and his wife, or two soldiers' widows; for the law provides for soldiers' wives and widows as well as for the soldier himself.

A new "tramp" law was passed, we hope a more efficient one than the old one. Precautions have been taken to make imprisonment under it a punishment, and to make the fees for arrest, etc., more moderate.

The abduction or enticing of girls or women for purpose of prostitution is to be punished by imprisonment for from five to fifteen years. The age of consent is fixed at fourteen years. Sexual intercourse with an idiot girl is punishable by imprisonment for from two to five years. A stringent law to break down houses of prostitution was passed.

Inebriates may be committed to an insane asylum.

A bill was introduced to establish a training-school for the feeble-minded. This was changed, in committee, so as to provide a custodial home for idiots and feeble-minded persons, and so passed both Houses three days before the adjournment; but it failed to receive the sanction of the governor, principally because, in his opinion, the State having adopted the county system of care for the chronic insane, the same system should be applied to this class, who are so nearly allied to the chronic insane.

The State Prison being nearly full, both the Board of Supervision and the Board of Charities, etc., and the warden of the State Prison recommended the erection of a new prison on the reformatory plan.

For some reason, the Board of Supervision receded from its original recommendation, declaring that the present prison was adequate for present needs. Consequently, no steps were taken toward erecting a reformatory.

The consideration of the question of prison labor was postponed for two years. A commission was created to consider the question in all its bearings, and report to next session. Meanwhile, \$100,000 was placed at the disposal of the Board of Supervision to provide for exigencies, in case they can make no arrangement with the present contractor to continue the work until the next legislature meets.

The visits to poorhouses and jails, made by the Board of Charities, show a steady improvement in most of these. Three new jails are being constructed on the Ohio plan or some modification of it. The new law will enable the Board to prohibit any more inefficient and unhealthy structures for these purposes.

Our various private charities continue to do good each in its own way, and their number is constantly increasing.

Although several needed reforms have failed of accomplishment, yet the world of reform does move; and Wisconsin will move with it.

WYOMING.

ROBERT C. MORRIS, Cheyenne.—Insane Asylum: An appropriation of \$30,000 was made by the legislature in March, 1886, for the erection of a hospital for the insane at Evanston, in the western part of Wyoming. The building, which is now in course of construction, will be completed early next year, and the Territorial patients that are now cared for at a private asylum in Jacksonville, Ill., will be returned. The institution is not built on the cottage plan; but a wing is being built, with a view of adding a centre building and another wing hereafter.

School for Deaf Mutes and the Blind: \$8,000 was appropriated in 1886, to provide for the education of the deaf-mutes and the blind of the Territory. Out of this appropriation, a block of ground was purchased within the city limits of Cheyenne, on an elevated plateau commanding a fine view of the city and the distant mountains; and plans for an institution on the cottage plan were adopted. \$6,000 is now being expended in the erection of a brick cottage, that will be ready for occupancy in a few months. There was no pressing need for an institution of this kind in Wyoming; and it would probably have been wiser to have provided for the education of this class of

unfortunates in some neighboring State, where the advantages of a well-equipped institution would have been far superior. The Territory, however, is growing rapidly, and in a few years will make adequate provision for such an institution in the way of manual training and other appliances. It is fortunate that the cottage plan has been adopted, as it will admit of the separation of the deaf-mutes from the blind.

Prisons: Wyoming convicts for a number of years have been sentenced to the Illinois Penitentiary, at Joliet, where they have been maintained free of expense to the Territory, in consideration of the labor performed by them at that prison. But, since the prohibition of contract labor in that State, all Territorial prisoners are sentenced to the county jails. Owing to the limited capacity of these jails, they are already overcrowded; and it is very important that something should be done. The penitentiary commissioners are powerless to make any better provision until the meeting of the legislature next winter, when some action will probably be taken for the erection of a penitentiary. Under our statutes, prisoners are not allowed to work under contract, or in any way where their labor offers competition to free labor.

County Poor: There are no poorhouses in Wyoming; but the county commissioners afford relief, when it is shown that the applicant is destitute, and has no other means of support. There are a number of charitable societies under the direction of the churches, besides benevolent associations that afford much needed relief. In all cases, the relief is only temporary, as there is no permanent class of paupers within the Territory. Where persons are permanently disabled, means are usually provided to return them to their friends in the East. At Cheyenne, the county maintains a hospital for the sick; and there is also one at Laramie City, under the direction of the Catholic Sisters.

III.

State Boards of Charities.

WORK ACCOMPLISHED BY THE STATE BOARDS.

REPORT OF THE STANDING COMMITTEE ON STATE BOARDS OF CHARITIES.

BY F. B. SANBORN, CHAIRMAN.

The Committee on State Boards of Charities, in addition to their usual work, which may appear in other reports and papers, herewith present a special Report on the work of these State Boards in the United States since 1863, and the results following therefrom, as observed in connection with that work. Certain statistical facts, in the form of tables or schedules, are appended to the Report for publication in the Proceedings of the Conference, with a view to summarize the results observed for use in future comparisons.

The systematic organization of public charity in the United States commenced in a few of the large cities before the Civil War; and certain State Boards, to supervise immigration or dispose of dependent immigrants, were also created before 1860. But it was during or immediately following the Civil War that State Boards of Charity were first organized, as will appear by the following statement concerning the twelve now in existence. The first State to establish a Board of Public Charities was Massachusetts, which created such a Board in the year 1863, and has continued it in existence, with various modifications of its powers and duties (generally extending them), until the present time, when the existing Board is known as the State Board of Lunacy and Charity. The example of Massachusetts was followed in 1867 by the States of Ohio and New York, in 1869 by Illinois, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island, in 1871 by Michigan and Wisconsin, in 1873 by Connecticut and Kansas, in 1882 by Minnesota, and in 1883 by New

Jersey. The State of Missouri also, for a short time, maintained a tentative Board; but neither there nor in North Carolina was the work continued for any length of time. In Ohio, the Board was abolished for a few years, but re-established in 1876; and in Connecticut the Board first established was practically inoperative for several years, until its reorganization in 1881. These Boards have been established with no uniformity of powers and duties, but according to the supposed needs of each State. In two States,—neither of them very populous at the time these Boards were created (Kansas and Rhode Island),—the State Boards are practically governing Boards for the State charitable and correctional establishments. In the States of Connecticut, Massachusetts, and New York, these boards do not inspect the prisons, though in Massachusetts the Board of State Charities from 1863 to 1879 had this power of prison inspection. But prison inspection is a duty of all the other State Boards, while in Rhode Island there is also the power of prison control and management. In Massachusetts and Pennsylvania, the summary powers of a lunacy commission are possessed by the State Boards (in Massachusetts since 1879, in Pennsylvania since 1883); but, in all the States, the inspection of insane asylums is an important part of the State Board's duties. Certain powers of administration in regard to the support of the insane or other dependants at State expense are given to the Boards of Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin, and of course exist in full force in Kansas and Rhode Island. The supervision of immigration is given by the national government to the State Boards in Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and perhaps other States, while in New York the supervision of recent immigrants is divided between the Emigrant Commissioners and the State Board of Charities. In Illinois, Kansas, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Wisconsin, and several other States, the Board of Public Charities has some control or influence in determining the expenditure, by appropriation or otherwise, of public money for the dependent and delinquent classes. Other powers of an executive character, too various to be here enumerated, are given to certain Boards. All of them possess the important power of inspection, supervision, and advice, not only with regard to institutions maintained by the States as such, but also in regard to municipal, local, and private charities.

Such being, in general terms, the powers of these Boards, exercised during periods varying from three to twenty-four years, in the above-named States, which now contain a population estimated at

27,000,000,* it is worth while to see what results have been attained or observed in these communities which contain nearly half the present population of the United States.

These results may be stated under the following heads:—

I. Insanity, its Increase, Treatment, and Future.

II. Pauperism in General, its Increase or Decrease, and the Cost which it involves.

III. The Care and Protection of Poor Children.

IV. Crime, its Increase or Decrease, Methods of Repression and Reformation.

V. Immigration as affecting Insanity, Pauperism, and Crime.

VI. Economical Results of State Charitable Administration.

Other deductions might be drawn from the experience of these Boards in matters not included under the above classification, such as Public Health in relation to Public Charity, the Causes of Chronic Pauperism and Insanity, the Education of Special Dependants, such as the blind, the deaf, the idiotic, etc.; but these will be touched upon only in a general way in this Report.

I. INSANITY, ITS INCREASE, TREATMENT, AND FUTURE.

The attention of the State Boards in Massachusetts, Ohio, and New York was early drawn to the subject of insanity in those States, and to the provision needing to be made for its treatment with a view to recovery. For this there were various reasons, some of which are now more distinctly seen than they could be in the years immediately following the Civil War. That great national event temporarily checked the increase of insanity in the United States, by diminishing immigration, destroying human life, and providing occupation for persons of unbalanced minds to such an extent that their insanity did not manifest itself at the time, as it afterwards did. The cessation of hostilities and the restoration of industry to its usual channels invited a large immigration, and led in a few years to a great apparent increase of the insane for whom public provision must be made. Moreover, the asylums and hospitals for the insane were,

*The population of these twelve States computed from the Census of 1880, or the more recent enumeration of 1884-85 in some of them, is estimated as follows in 1887:—

Connecticut,	700,000	Michigan,	1,900,000	Ohio,	3,300,000
Illinois,	3,600,000	Minnesota,	1,200,000	Pennsylvania,	4,600,000
Kansas,	1,300,000	New Jersey,	1,300,000	Rhode Island,	300,000
Massachusetts,	2,000,000	New York,	5,600,000	Wisconsin,	1,600,000
Total, 27,400,000.					

from the nature of the case, managed by persons of special experience and professional skill, who had brought the subject of insanity prominently before the public mind in the States mentioned and had become recognized authorities as to its treatment, so that the first State Boards could find in these establishments materials for observation and problems of administration which hardly existed elsewhere. At that time, however (now twenty years ago), the opinion was almost universal that insanity was a disease easily curable, provided its treatment commenced early, and the efforts of specialists and legislatures were to secure this early provision for hospital treatment, no matter at what expense; while it was also maintained that the chronic insane, if not curable, yet had possibilities of recovery which must be favored by maintaining them in costly hospitals among the curable cases. Upon this theory, which was supported by statistics of recovery now shown to have been in some degree fallacious, the insane of a given State (like Massachusetts or New York) ought not to increase at all in number, if the State did its duty in building and maintaining costly hospitals. The Boards of Charity were puzzled, therefore, in Massachusetts and New York at first, and presently in Illinois, Ohio, and other States, to find that the insane *were* increasing rapidly, in apparent contradiction of the prevalent theory. The building of a new hospital, instead of diminishing insanity, seemed to develop it; and the accumulation of the insane was so uniform, in States very differently situated in other respects, that there seemed to be some prevailing cause throughout the country for an effect so generally noticed. Gradually, and to a great extent in consequence of the essays of Dr. Pliny Earle on the curability of the insane, it was ascertained that insanity in general was by no means easily curable, and that its apparent increase was mainly due to the fact that so many persons were attacked, while so few recovered or died in a given time. This discovery, that the curable were at all times very few in proportion to the incurable, has led the State Boards almost everywhere to recommend and secure increased provision for the chronic insane, separate from the hospitals in which the curable were treated. This provision has been made on a large scale in Massachusetts, New York, Rhode Island, Wisconsin, and other States, and is recommended elsewhere. In some States, like Pennsylvania and Ohio, the necessity for such chronic asylums is not yet fully recognized; but even there, and in all the States, the tendency is now in that direction.

To illustrate what is meant by the increase of insanity, as observed

by the State Boards, we will submit a few figures, taken chiefly from the reports of these Boards in early and in recent years :—

SCHEDULE A. INSANITY AND POPULATION.

States.	Population in 1870.	Insane Persons Reported.					Population in 1886.
		1868.	1869.	1870.	1885.	1886.	
Massachusetts,	1,457,351	1,870	1,875	1,965	3,862	4,040	2,000,000
New York,	4,382,759	4,346	4,599	4,830	12,833	13,538	5,600,000
Ohio,	2,665,260	2,256	2,552	2,431	5,119	6,536	3,300,000
Pennsylvania,	3,521,951			2,404	5,640	5,923	4,600,000
Illinois,	2,530,891	2,670	2,830	3,002	6,900	7,300	3,600,000
Wisconsin,	1,054,670	355	455	786	2,370	2,610	1,600,000
Rhode Island,	217,353		125	200	400	590	300,000
Michigan,	1,184,059			600	1,893	2,353	1,900,000

The figures in this schedule are given for those years in which the State Boards have most fully reported the facts shown ; and the figures of the national census of 1880, although more correct than some of those given in this schedule, are not included, because they would not serve so readily in a comparison. It is not meant to say that the figures given include *all* the insane in the States named, but only such as are reported by the State Boards.

This schedule, though necessarily incomplete and not showing results exactly similar in the different States, still indicates an enormous increase of insanity in the aggregate, when compared with the total population. Thus, between 1870 and 1885, while the population of these States increased hardly more than thirty per cent., the reported number of the insane increased much more than one hundred per cent. ; that is to say, it more than doubled. A part of this increase was no doubt owing to a less perfect enumeration in the earlier years than in the later ones ; but, mainly, it was an accumulation of insane persons who had neither recovered nor died, though subjected to the most favorable treatment that the States in which they resided could furnish. The national census of 1880, when compared with that of 1870, showed a like increase, due to similar causes,—among which special prominence has been given to the large number of immigrants arriving during that period and becoming insane, if they were not so when they arrived. This increase of insanity by reason of immigration is doubtless shown by the statistics which the State Boards collect in some regions, particularly in the State of New York ; but it is hardly possible to ascribe to immigration mainly the strange accumulation or increase of insanity in Wisconsin in recent years. The gain of Wisconsin in population

has not been very great in these years, and by no means wholly from immigration; yet the increase of the insane has been proportionately as large in Wisconsin as in New York, where hundreds of thousands of immigrants land every year.

So great an accumulation of the insane, most of whom must be supported at the public cost, and in many of the States as paupers, has necessarily led to a modification of their treatment. They are no longer regarded, in any of the States where Boards of Charities are established, as needing in all cases hospital treatment; and in several of these States chronic asylums, either large or small, have been gradually provided for the insane poor, who do not need hospital treatment and yet are not suitable cases for poorhouse wards or for private families. Some of these chronic asylums, as at Willard in New York, have become very large. Others, as in the counties of Wisconsin and the cities of Massachusetts, remain small; and it is not proposed greatly to enlarge them. Other chronic asylums, like that of Rhode Island at Cranston and those of Massachusetts at Bridgewater, Tewksbury, and Worcester, are about the size formerly recommended by the American superintendents for hospitals; and these are not likely very much to increase in size. But when the chronic insane are retained in the same hospitals with recent cases,—as, for example, in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois,—these hospitals themselves become very large, like those in Norristown, Pa., Indianapolis, Ind., and Kankakee, Ill. The latter, indeed, seems capable of indefinite growth, and, as it enlarges, practically separates the chronic from the recent cases,—not only in buildings detached from each other, but specially assigned to different classes of the chronic insane. The same extension and classification, in detached buildings under the same management, seem to be favored in Ohio and elsewhere; and this is one of the forms of improved classification and treatment which have sprung up under the direction of Boards of Charities.

In Wisconsin, however, a method diametrically opposite has prevailed since 1881, which also appears to be taking root in other States. Instead of enlarging the existing hospitals or providing for villages of the insane, like those at Kankakee and Willard, the Wisconsin State Board has procured the establishment of numerous county asylums, with a capacity seldom exceeding a hundred in each, which receive from the State hospitals and distribute by counties throughout the State the chronic insane who had been sent from the same counties to the hospitals for treatment in former years. Fifteen

such county asylums now exist in Wisconsin, with a population of above twelve hundred; and the number is every year increased by one or more counties which adopt the system in preference to maintaining their insane in the large hospitals or in poorhouse wards. The Wisconsin State Board says of these asylums:—

They have already saved the State a million dollars, which would have gone for building State institutions before this, but is all saved. The cost to the State for current expenses is about seventy-five cents a week less than it would be now in a State institution, or \$1.50 less than formerly; making, with special appropriations for permanent improvements, about \$50,000 annually saved in this way. This is not imposed upon the county, for they will pay for their buildings in an average of ten years out of their own savings. The improvement in the condition of the insane must be considered from the stand-point of the State hospitals or from that of the poorhouses. Those who were or would have been in poorhouses and jails have been greatly benefited, without any question; and we think the care given in county asylums is better than in State hospitals for the chronic insane. The reports show improvement in the direction of liberty and occupation in both State hospitals and county asylums. In both cases, this is due to the State Board of Charities. The county asylums are now a fixed fact, and will soon be the principal fact in the treatment of insanity in this State.

The financial part of this arrangement in Wisconsin is in some respects peculiar to that State, but it might well be adopted by Pennsylvania, Illinois, and other States which may desire to establish well-managed county asylums aided from the State treasury. Such asylums not only do not injure the State hospitals, but benefit them in several ways: first, by removing the dead weight of chronic insanity, which is so discouraging a feature in the ordinary hospital; and, next, by stimulating improvement in hospital management, through a comparison with the new asylums. Similar results are observed in Massachusetts and New York since the chronic insane began to be removed to separate asylums, about twenty years ago. An extension of this policy has lately been adopted in Massachusetts by introducing the Scotch system of boarding the chronic insane in private families, with satisfactory results thus far. Dr. Mitchell, Chairman of the Lunacy Commission of Scotland, says, "We have now [in 1887] more than two thousand pauper lunatics in private dwellings." It is not expected that half this number can be boarded out in Massachusetts, but success there will doubtless be followed by an adoption in other States of the policy which has proved so useful in Scotland.

The State Boards everywhere have favored, and in most of the States have secured, an increase of the medical staff in hospitals and asylums for the insane; and the number of physicians now devoted to the treatment of the insane is very large. The requirement of certificates of insanity that will warrant a judicial commitment of the insane person (which the law now exacts in Illinois, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and other States) has promoted a better knowledge of the disease in the medical profession; and the training now given in medical schools and hospitals is much better than formerly. Consequently, the treatment of the insane in hospitals is more skilful; while the old-fashioned strictness of restraint and seclusion has been much abated, and there is a tendency to greater occupation of the patients in useful labor. All these improvements are still going forward. Greater liberty and a more thorough classification of the insane, with perhaps an increase of recoveries, may be looked for in the future; and, though the burden of insanity has so much increased, its causes and the means of dealing with it are far better understood than twenty years ago. They also appear to be better understood, and the means of treatment are more readily furnished and better applied in the States which have Boards of Public Charity than elsewhere.

II. PAUPERISM, ITS INCREASE OR DIMINUTION; ITS COST AND THE MEANS OF CHECKING IT.

Upon this subject, naturally, great interest centres in all the States where Boards exist; and no part of the published reports of these Boards is more instructive than that which concerns pauperism in general, and thus includes both insanity and the care of poor children, which have so much to do with increasing or diminishing the number of the public poor. There is some difficulty in tabulating statistics upon pauperism, because in certain States most of the insane are reckoned as paupers, while in other States only a portion of them are so considered. And the same statement applies to the number and cost of maintaining poor children. In the remarks which follow, allowance will be made for this difficulty where it exists.

The experience of all the Boards of Public Charity, with the possible exception of Illinois and Michigan, from 1863 to the present time, has been the same in respect to the number and cost of the public poor as compared with the population of the State where they are aided. Except for the insane, who are everywhere con-

stantly accumulating beyond their due ratio to the whole population, there has never been for a period of five years any increase in the proportion of paupers to population; while for longer periods there has generally been a decrease in the number of the poor as compared with the whole population, although there may have been an augmented cost of relieving them. This increase of cost naturally takes place in all communities which provide year by year a better classification and disposal of the applicants for public relief, and has been noticed in nearly all parts of the United States and of Europe within twenty years past. It may co-exist with an actual decrease in the number of the poor, as has been seen in England of late years. It is also, in general, an indication of increasing wealth in the community. The cost of out-door relief, however, ordinarily decreases as the administration of public charity becomes more efficient; and this decrease has been noticed and greatly promoted by the Boards of Public Charity in most of our States. In Massachusetts, however, the cost of out-door relief has considerably increased since 1864, because the number of persons receiving this form of public charity has been purposely enlarged by the State authorities, who were unwilling to incur the great outlay which would otherwise have been necessary in building poorhouses, hospitals, schools for poor children, and other such establishments; and in Massachusetts the cost of in-door-relief, except for the insane, has hardly increased at all during the past twenty years, beyond the natural growth of the State population.

The following tables are intended to show (roughly in the earlier years, but more exactly since 1880) the number and cost of the public poor, including insane persons and poor children, in the States maintaining Boards of Public Charities, so far as the reports accessible give the desired information. In some cases, where this could not be had, a careful estimate has been made by persons believed to be the best informed. After all, however, these tables will be found more or less defective; and members of the Conference or other persons to whom this report may come are desired to correct any errors which they notice.

SCHEDULE B.

IN EIGHT SPECIAL TABLES,

Covering the States of New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Ohio, Massachusetts, Wisconsin, and Michigan, 1868-1886.

PAUPER STATISTICS OF NEW YORK.

SCHEDULE B. No. 1.

Years.	Where supported.	In-door Poor, including full support out of Almshouse.				Temporary Relief.		Aggregates.		Population.
		Whole No. in Year	Average No.	No. at a given time.	Cost.	No. of Persons.	Cost.	Whole No.	Cost.	
1868	County Poorhouses,	21,529	7,362	7,362	\$687,631	50,953	\$525,796	72,482	\$1,213,427	4,382,759
	City Almshouses,	30,741	6,679	6,679	939,450	160,946	155,231	191,687	1,094,681	
	State Asylums,				141,149				141,149	
	Totals,	52,270	14,041	14,041	\$1,768,230	211,899	\$681,027	264,169	\$2,449,257	
1869	County Poorhouses,	19,102	6,745	6,745	\$683,708	95,297	\$697,068	114,399	\$1,380,776	4,382,759
	City Almshouses,	34,595	7,278	7,278	980,157	54,589	284,893	89,184	1,265,050	
	State Asylums,				147,191				147,191	
	Totals,	53,697	14,023	14,023	\$1,811,056	149,886	\$981,961	203,583	\$2,793,017	
1870	County Poorhouses,	18,945	6,465	6,465	\$568,521	56,771	\$618,939	75,716	\$1,187,460	4,382,759
	City Almshouses,	40,191	8,887	8,887	1,112,949	45,025	293,916	85,216	1,406,865	
	State Asylums,				177,270				177,270	
	Totals,	59,136	15,352	15,352	\$1,858,740	101,796	\$912,855	160,932	\$2,771,595	
1883	County Poorhouses,	16,209	6,351	6,351	\$634,870	48,277	\$505,413	64,484	\$1,140,283	4,382,759
	City Almshouses,	49,776	10,965	10,965	1,324,067	12,277	74,674	62,053	1,399,541	
	State Asylums,				646,585				646,585	
	" paupers in Almsh.	1,566		158	40,000			1,566	40,000	
	Totals,	67,549	17,316	17,474	\$2,646,422	60,554	\$579,987	128,103	\$3,226,409	
1884	County Poorhouses,	18,183	6,816	6,816	\$657,532	43,677	\$518,689	61,860	\$1,176,221	4,382,759
	City Almshouses,	50,875	11,454	11,454	1,269,784	10,539	52,501	61,414	1,322,285	
	State Asylums,				634,492				634,492	
	" paupers in Almsh.	2,050		173	40,000			2,050	40,000	
	Totals,	71,108	18,270	18,443	\$2,601,808	54,216	\$571,190	125,324	\$3,172,998	
1885	County Poorhouses,	19,254	6,895	6,895	\$675,587	42,779	\$525,536	62,033	\$1,201,123	4,382,759
	City Almshouses,	51,247	11,909	11,909	1,306,968	12,811	66,959	64,058	1,373,927	
	State Asylums,				684,368				684,368	
	" paupers in Almsh.	2,021		174	40,000			2,021	40,000	
	Totals,	72,522	18,804	18,978	\$2,706,923	55,590	\$592,495	128,112	\$3,299,418	
1886	County Poorhouses,	18,376	7,026	7,026	\$667,057	37,277	\$530,018	55,653	\$1,197,075	5,600,700
	City Almshouses,	50,153	12,000	12,000	1,342,289	11,867	97,248	62,020	1,439,537	
	State Asylums,				795,413				795,413	
	" paupers in Almsh.	1,780		161	40,000			1,780	40,000	
	Totals,	70,309	19,026	19,189	\$2,754,759	49,144	\$627,266	119,453	\$3,384,025	

PAUPER STATISTICS OF PENNSYLVANIA.

SCHEDULE B. No. 2.

Years.	Pauperism.	In-door Poor, and full support outside.				Temporary Relief.		Aggregates.		Population.
		Whole No. in Year.	Average No.	No. at a given time.	Net Cost.	Approximate Whole No.	Cost.	Whole No.	Net Cost.*	
1869	County Almshouses, Elsewhere, Township Poor,			6,747	\$834,966	7,500 est.	\$184,195		\$1,019,161	
1870	County Almshouses, Elsewhere, Township Poor,	17,571	8,000	8,064	\$791,987*	7,500 est.	\$186,325		\$978,312	3,521,951
1883	County Almshouses, Elsewhere, Township Poor, Insane Poor in Hosp'l, Total,	22,561 3,226 4,000 29,787	8,300 1,940 2,400 13,040	8,313 2,131 2,841 21,598	\$1,296,946 201,550 571,943 \$2,070,439	16,856	\$226,037	42,63	\$1,428,280 201,550 571,943 \$2,201,773	
1884	County Almshouses, Elsewhere, Township Poor, Insane Poor in Hosp'l, Total,	21,577 1,235 3,368 4,500 30,680	8,600 2,103 3,100 13,803	8,599 2,249 3,159 14,007	\$1,267,023 224,855 563,616 \$2,055,494	18,980	\$241,758	45,160	\$1,428,273 224,855 563,616 \$2,216,744	
1885	County Almshouses, Elsewhere, Township Poor, Insane Poor in Hosp'l, Total,	22,792 1,371 4,106 4,800 33,069	8,750 2,371 3,500 12,250	8,673 2,563 3,590 12,263	\$1,234,250 256,300 764,021 \$2,254,471	23,747	\$247,412	52,026	\$1,361,204 256,200 764,021 \$2,381,425	
1886	County Almshouses, Elsewhere, Township Poor, Insane Poor in Hosp'l, Total,	122,057 5,177 4,562 31,996	8,700 3,500 14,200†	8,535 3,500 14,000†	\$1,295,059.38 305,865.19 775,000 \$2,376,925†	17,185	235,609.30		\$2,517,400†	4,600,000

* Deducting "Receipts."

† Year's population.

SPECIAL TABLE FOR PENNSYLVANIA.

CERTAIN PAUPER STATISTICS.

Years.		Whole Number in Year.	Number on Sept. 30.	Total Expenditure	Receipts.	Population (Estimated).
1873	<i>Full Support.</i>					
	In Almshouses,		7,433	\$926,224.27	\$77,020.93	3,750,000
	In Hosp'ls for Insane, etc.,		2,184			
	<i>Temporary Relief.</i>					
	Out-door Relief, . . .		*7,632	252,213.84	22,405.06	
	Township Poor, . . .	*1,323		106,503.25	607.96	
1883	<i>Full Support.</i>					
	In Almshouses,	22,561	8,313	\$1,296,945.51	\$94,702.91	
	In Hosp'ls for Insane, etc.,		3,586			
	<i>Temporary Relief.</i>					
	Out-door Relief, . . .	*16,856		226,037.14		
	Township Poor, . . .	*3,226		203,830.05	2,279.56	
1884	<i>Full Support.</i>					
	In Almshouses,	21,577	8,599	\$1,267,022.50	\$80,507.71	
	In Hosp'ls for Insane, etc.,		3,958			
	<i>Temporary Relief.</i>					
	Out-door Relief, . . .	*18,980		241,758.28		
	Township Poor, . . .	*3,368		227,628.94	2,774.22	
1885	<i>Full Support.</i>					
	In Almshouses,	22,792	8,673	\$1,234,250.00	\$120,457.81	
	In Hosp'ls for Insane, etc.,		4,458			
	<i>Temporary Relief.</i>					
	Out-door Relief, . . .	*23,747		247,411.99		
	Township Poor, . . .	*4,106		258,395.67	2,195.12	
1886	<i>Full Support.</i>					
	In Almshouses,	22,057	8,535	\$1,295,059.38	\$95,133.41	4,600,000
	In Hosp'ls for Insane, etc.,		4,562			
	<i>Temporary Relief.</i>					
	Out-door Relief, . . .	*17,185		235,609.30		
	Township Poor, . . .	*5,377		306,865.19		

* These totals approximate the correct numbers.

NOTE.—The cost of supporting the indigent insane in State hospitals is divided between the State and the counties. The cost is regulated by statute, so as not to exceed four (4) dollars per week per capita.

In Pennsylvania, by the special table, the number of paupers fully supported has largely increased from 1873 to 1886; but nearly two-thirds of this increase has been among the insane enumerated in the table, who, however, had not all been paupers. In the year 1873, the number at a given date, which may be taken as an approximate average number, was, in the almshouses and hospitals, 9,617; while in 1886 it had increased to 13,097. The increase here in thirteen years is 3,480, more than 2,300 of which were among the insane. The population, in the mean time, has increased about 23 per cent., according to our estimate; while the paupers have increased 36 per cent., and the insane alone more than 109 per cent. This agrees with the experience of other States.

The cost of out-door relief in Pennsylvania, by this special table, was \$252,214 in 1873, when the number at a given date was 7,632 (which may be taken as a rough average); while in 1886 it had fallen a little to \$235,609. Assuming that \$33 was the average cost for each pauper of the average number, as in 1873, then the average number of the out-door poor would be in 1886 about 7,140,—a slight decrease in thirteen years, notwithstanding a gain of 23 per cent. in population. This might be expected in consequence of giving up out-door relief in Philadelphia.

The number of the "township poor" would seem by this table to have increased from 1,323 in 1873 to 5,377 in 1886, a gain of more than 300 per cent.; while the reported cost has increased from \$106,503 to \$306,865, or not quite 200 per cent. To account for this discrepancy, we may suppose that the number reported in 1873 was too small, or else that the number of townships has increased, while the method of furnishing relief may have improved. These townships are those which make little or no use of the county system, although they send their insane poor to the State asylums.

NOTE ON THE FOLLOWING PART OF THE REPORT.

Dr. A. G. Byers, of Ohio, a member of the Committee, under date of October 1, writes: "I have found, or nearly found (if you desire to state it), that, with an average daily population of insane persons numbering 3,500, two-thirds, or 2,350, may be classed as pauper or dependent insane. Our only way of judging is, however, that this number or proportion receive clothing from the State or county, while the remainder of the patients are supplied by their families." This refers to the patients in the State asylums, and would increase the average number of paupers in Ohio for 1886 to 9,864, as shown on page 89.

Dr. Byers further says: "You omit Ohio from the list of States with laws forbidding the placing of children in poorhouses. One State school, as in Michigan, would not meet the demand in Ohio. Our counties are now providing (nearly half of them) for children in country homes, supported by tax, as in New York, or else in separate buildings on poor-farms. We believe district or county homes, if well managed, better for our State."

PAUPER STATISTICS OF ILLINOIS.

SCHEDULE B. No. 3.

Years.	In-door Poor, and full support outside.			Temporary Relief.		Aggregates.		Population.
	Whole Number in year.	Average Number or Number at a given date.	Cost.	Number of Persons	Cost.	Whole Number.	Cost.	
1868	2,700	1,800	\$350,000	A	\$350,000	A	\$700,000	
1869	3,000	2,000	\$375,000	H	\$375,000	H	\$750,000	
1870	3,300	2,200	\$400,000	A	\$400,000	A	\$800,000	2,530,891
1880	6,500	4,275	\$600,000	H	\$600,000	H	\$1,200,000	
1883	6,700	4,500	\$690,000		\$700,000		\$1,390,000	
1884	6,900	4,600	\$720,000	O	\$775,000	O	\$1,495,000	
1885	7,000	4,700	\$750,000	H	\$850,000	H	\$1,600,000	
1886	7,200	4,800	\$780,000		\$910,000		\$1,690,000	3,600,000

The Illinois statistics are an estimate made by Mr. F. H. Wines, Secretary of the Board of Public Charities, exact figures not being attainable. It there appears that the total cost of pauperism in that State increased from \$800,000 in 1870, when the population was 2,530,891, to \$1,690,000 in 1886, when we estimate the population at 3,600,000. Here, then, would be an increase of more than 100 per cent. in pauper cost, while the population of the State increased less than 50 per cent. At the same time, the average number fully supported seems to have increased from 2,200 in 1870 to 4,800 in 1886, a gain of 118 per cent. This is an apparent exception to the rule in other States, and might seem to indicate that a great many more of the insane poor are now supported as paupers than was the case in 1870. But, on the contrary, the Board of Public Charities say in their last report: "We have made a prodigious effort to provide for all our pauper insane in State institutions, which has greatly diminished the number who would otherwise have been a county charge. In point of fact, our almshouse system seems to be growing at *four times* the rate of growth in population; and, if the pauper insane in State institutions were added in, it would probably be safe to say that the total burden borne is growing at *six or eight times the rate of growth* of the entire population of Illinois."

And in confirmation of this statement, so far as the insane are concerned, we find that their average number in the State hospitals in 1875 was but 925, while in 1886 it was 3,515. In 1880 there were, at a given date, 1,725 insane persons in State and private hospitals and 1,233 in county care; but Oct. 1, 1886, there were about 3,650 in State and private hospitals and 1,161 in county care. How much of the exceptional condition of pauperism in Illinois is due to the peculiar circumstances attendant on the relief of the poor in Cook County, of which Chicago is the principal part, is hard to say.

PAUPER STATISTICS OF OHIO.

SCHEDULE B. No. 4.

Years.	Where supported.	In-door Poor, and full support outside.				Temporary Relief.		Aggregates.		Population.
		Whole No.	Average No.	No. at a given time.	Net Cost.	Whole No.	Cost.	Whole No.	Cost.	
1868	County Infirmarys,	7,000	2,500	4,742						
	Children's Homes,	175	125	159						
	Total,	7,175	2,625	5,001						
1869	County Infirmarys,	9,000		4,748						
	Children's Homes,									
	Total,									
1870	County Infirmarys,	7,450		4,512						2,665,260
	Children's Homes,									
	Total,									
1883	County Infirmarys,	13,244	5,244	6,854	\$685,014		\$225,388			
	Children's Homes,	1,923	1,019	1,206	121,559					
	Estimate unreported,	104	2,282	84			26,000			
	Total,	15,271	8,545	8,144	\$806,573	33,000	\$251,388	48,271	\$1,057,961	
1884	County Infirmarys,	12,663	5,826	7,826	\$486,689					
	Children's Homes,	2,247	1,376	1,431	148,715					
	Estimate unreported,	73	9		20,000					
	Total,	14,983	6,211	9,257	\$655,404	35,000	\$301,159	49,983	\$956,563	
1885	County Infirmarys,	14,918	6,893	8,957	\$620,058					
	Children's Homes,	2,227	1,494	1,545	126,296					
	Estimate unreported,									
	Total,	17,145	8,387	10,502	\$746,354	36,000	\$381,165	53,145	\$1,127,519	
1886	County Infirmarys,	14,537	6,934	7,910	\$616,777					
	Children's Homes,	1,873	1,580	1,545	124,557					
	Estimate unreported,	200	*2,350	2,400						
	Total,	16,610	10,864	11,855	\$741,334	35,000	\$302,216	51,610	\$1,043,550	3,300,000
				*9,864						

* See note on page 87.

The Ohio statistics are made up from two distinct sources, and have therefore less uniformity than those of some other States. The insane in State asylums, though supported at public expense, do not appear in Ohio nor in Illinois as paupers; while in Massachusetts most of them are so reckoned, and a large majority of them are also reckoned as paupers in New York and Pennsylvania. This accounts in part for the greater apparent number and cost of paupers in those States than in Ohio. In the latter, the reported cost of maintaining the poor has not increased at all for those years; while in the neighboring State of Illinois it has greatly increased. Were all the facts taken into account in the two States, the discrepancy would appear much less.

PAUPER STATISTICS OF MASSACHUSETTS.

SCHEDULE B. No. 5.

Years	Where Supported.	In-door Poor, and full support outside.			Temporary Relief.		Aggregates.	
		Whole Number.	Average Number.	Cost.	Average Number.	Cost.	Average Number.	Cost.
1868	In Almshouses	9,101	4,705	\$545,808			4,795	\$545,808
	Outside,	2,032	1,512	280,981	9,000	\$288,369	10,512	\$699,350
	Total . . .	11,133	6,307	\$826,789	9,000	\$288,369	15,307	\$1,115,158
1869	In Almshouses	8,315	4,636	\$505,713			4,636	\$505,713
	Outside,	2,074	1,470	285,484	8,000	\$296,899	9,870	\$582,383
	Total . . .	10,389	6,106	\$791,197	8,000	\$296,899	14,106	\$1,088,096
1870	In Almshouses	7,994	4,256	\$529,066			4,256	\$529,066
	Outside,	2,196	1,498	274,814	8,000	\$293,824	9,498	\$568,638
	Total . . .	10,190	5,754	\$803,880	8,000	\$293,824	13,754	\$1,097,704
1883	In Almshouses	10,942	5,331	\$667,307			5,331	\$667,307
	Outside,	5,000	3,608	630,345	16,500	\$600,435	20,108	\$1,230,780
	Total . . .	15,942	8,939	\$1,297,652	16,500	\$600,435	25,439	\$1,898,087
1884	In Almshouses	11,400	5,389	\$666,917			5,389	\$666,917
	Outside,	5,800	4,134	660,912	17,000	\$629,387	21,134	\$1,290,299
	Total . . .	17,200	9,523	\$1,267,829	17,000	\$629,387	26,523	\$1,957,216
1885	In Almshouses	12,000	6,287	\$740,000			6,287	\$740,000
	Outside,	5,900	4,396	712,163	19,000	\$663,886	23,396	\$1,376,049
	Total . . .	17,900	10,683	\$1,452,163	19,000	\$663,886	29,683	\$2,116,049
1886	In Almshouses	11,390	6,355	\$734,270			6,355	\$734,270
	Outside,	6,236	4,542	775,000	18,000	\$675,742	22,542	\$1,450,742
	Total . . .	17,626	10,897	\$1,509,270	18,000	\$675,742	28,897	\$2,185,012

The pauper statistics of Massachusetts have been reported for a longer time, more fully, and more systematically than those of any other State; and, therefore, the facts may be assumed as more accurately given. This accuracy is indicated in the schedule by the greater use of *average numbers*, which represent the constant daily burden of pauperism better than the fluctuating and often duplicated figures of the whole number supported or aided. In the whole numbers reported by Massachusetts there is but little duplication, while the averages are derived either from a weekly count or from a pauper census taken at two maximum and minimum periods. The pauper insane of Massachusetts now make up about a third part of the paupers fully supported, and more than a third of the average number.

PAUPER STATISTICS OF WISCONSIN.*

SCHEDULE B. No. 6.

Years.	Classes.	In-door Poor, full support.				Temp'y Relief.		Aggregates.		Population.
		Whole No.	Average No.	No. at given time.	Cost.	No.	Cost.	Whole No.	Cost.	
1870	County Poorhouses, Elsewhere (out),			1,240	\$70,553	2,560	\$113,005 69,308		\$252,866	1,054,670
1883	County Poorhouses, City Elsewhere (out), County Asylums, Total,	2,410 103 1,278 533 4,384		967 49 498 1,514	\$74,762 16,280 29,547 \$120,589	6,831	\$257,004	10,682 498 11,180	\$348,046 29,547 \$377,593	
1884	County Poorhouses, City Elsewhere (out), County Asylums, Total,	2,394 112 1,020 691 4,217		1,211 53 612 1,876	\$77,682 52,786 \$130,468	6,021	\$262,992	9,547 691 10,238	\$340,674 52,786 \$393,460	
1885	County Poorhouses, City Elsewhere (out), County Asylums, Total,	1,589 106 1,804 873 4,371		903 46 781 1,730	\$63,420 5,702 62,598 \$131,720	7,919	\$290,000	11,417 781 12,198	\$359,122 62,598 \$421,720	1,563,413
1886	County Poorhouses, City Elsewhere (out), County Asylums, Total,	2,526 92 1,674 1,014 5,306		1,149 48 926 2,123	\$98,166 7,015 79,393 \$184,574	10,727	\$290,000	15,019 1,014 16,033	\$395,181 79,393 \$474,574	1,600,000

* The Wisconsin Board of Supervision, organized in 1881, has nearly the same powers as the Kansas Board, which is called a Board of Trustees.

PAUPER STATISTICS OF MICHIGAN.

SCHEDULE B. No. 7.

Years.	Where supported.	In-door Poor, and full support outside.			Temporary Relief.		Aggregates.		Population.
		Whole No.	Approx. Av. No.	Cost.	Approx. Av. No.	Cost.	Approx. Av. No.	Cost.	
1874	Poorhouses	4,532	1,642	\$167,177			1,642	\$167,177	1,334,031
	Outside,	1,500	450	96,567	8,000	\$103,734	8,450	290,301	
	Total, . .	6,032	2,092	\$263,744	8,000	\$193,734	10,092	\$457,478	
1876	Poorhouses	5,183	1,805	\$219,968			1,805	\$219,968	
	Outside,	1,919	500	99,535	10,000	\$285,123	10,500	384,658	
	Total, . .	7,102	2,305	\$319,503	10,000	\$285,123	12,305	\$604,626	
1883	Poorhouses	6,114	2,412	\$260,080			2,412	\$260,080	
	Outside,	4,486	1,200	110,452	9,000	\$324,576	10,100	435,028	
	Total, . .	10,600	3,612	\$370,532	9,000	\$324,576	12,512	\$695,108	
1884	Poorhouses	6,091	2,152	\$280,885			2,152	\$280,885	1,853,658
	Outside,	4,295	1,000	112,043	8,500	\$373,582	9,500	485,625	
	Total, . .	10,386	3,152	\$392,928	8,500	\$373,582	11,652	\$766,510	
1885	Poorhouses	5,719	2,281	\$285,519			2,281	\$285,519	
	Outside,	2,615	1,100	104,071	14,000	\$418,798	15,100	522,869	
	Total, . .	8,324	3,381	\$389,590	14,000	\$418,798	17,381	\$808,388	

Although the Michigan Board of Charities has existed since 1871, it has not until the last ten years collected pauper statistics so accurately as to make them of much value. In the year 1871, the cost of out-door relief was about \$150,000, and the cost of in-door relief something more than \$200,000. In that year, the Board of Charities estimated the whole number of paupers in poorhouses at about 4,000, the average number 1,500, and the average number of paupers receiving out-door relief was 7,000, the whole number of different persons then reckoned as paupers being apparently between 20,000 and 25,000. Since 1871, the State population has increased about sixty per cent.; while the number of the permanent paupers, including all the insane, has more than doubled. But, if the insane in the State asylums are excluded, the permanent paupers have not apparently increased since 1871 much faster than the gain in population, although the cost of their support has more than doubled. It is to be remembered that the figures for 1871 are only an estimate; while those from 1874 to 1885, given in the table, are carefully reported and tabulated. The increase of cost in eleven years, as shown by this table, is less than eighty per cent.; while the population of Michigan seems to have increased about fifty per cent. in the same period. It is also to be noticed that the temporary relief has increased in cost during these eleven years more than thirty per cent.;

while permanent relief, both in the poorhouses and outside of them, has increased more than fifty per cent.

GENERAL REMARKS ON THE STATISTICS OF PAUPERISM.

There is so little uniformity in the pauper returns from the other States which have Boards of Charities that we have not thought it needful to tabulate their statistics. And in the States above included there is also great lack of uniformity, yet the facts given may serve to show in a general way what has been the experience of those States during the period which these statistics cover. The work of the State Boards everywhere has been to systematize information of this kind, to collect it more accurately, to classify the poor better, and to provide for their relief in a greater variety of ways, according to the need of the many classes of poor persons mingled together under the general name of paupers. This improved treatment, based upon improved classification, has naturally gone forward fastest in the oldest States and those containing the largest city populations; and it has been materially promoted by those rapidly growing organizations — independent of the State Boards, but co-operating with them — which are known as Organized or Associated Charities. Yet the labors of all these Boards and of all the co-operative agencies, whether private or public, have hardly been sufficient to check the growth of pauperism in a country which, like ours, receives annually such armies of the poor from European countries and at home permits intemperance to breed so much pauperism, especially in cities. Upon the whole, however, in spite of these unfavorable influences, pauperism does not seem to be growing in the United States out of proportion to our growing population, except as insanity adds its hopeless burdens to the other misfortunes of the poor. And a great movement, which must ultimately check and diminish pauperism, — the increased effort for educating and elevating neglected and dependent children, — has, within the twenty years covered by this Report, assumed proportions and developed methods and results which are every way gratifying.

III. THE CARE AND PROTECTION OF POOR CHILDREN.

At the time when the State Boards of which we are speaking were first established (from 1863 to 1870), poor children in most of the States were associated in asylums and poorhouses and other public establishments with the adult poor, often infirm, insane, incurably diseased, or vicious in life,—an association most unfortunate and contaminating for the children themselves, unfavorable to discipline in these establishments, and an obstacle to the proper training and education of the young. That this state of things no longer exists is due mainly in the States which maintain Boards to the early and persistent efforts of these Boards to classify the poor and vicious, and to place the children, whether guilty of petty offences or not, in such relations that, when grown up, they could enter the general community uncontaminated in character and uninjured in reputation by the actual circumstances of poverty or by the stigma attaching to pauperism and crime. In some of the States, this separation of the hopeful from the incorrigible portion of the public dependants was begun earlier and has been carried farther than in others; but everywhere the effort has been made, and always with considerable success, as shown by the results.

The State which, from its large population, its position between the seaboard and the great lakes, and the number and character of its cities, has been compelled to pay the greatest attention to the protection of poor children, is New York. This State, also, was one of the first to organize a State Board of Charities, which has had for many years as its presiding officer a gentleman specially interested in this subject, Mr. William P. Letchworth, whose reports and papers, addressed to this Conference and to other charitable organizations, have from time to time stated the results secured in New York. Earlier than Mr. Letchworth's public connection with this special charity, another citizen of the same State, Mr. Charles L. Brace, began to organize in New York City a private charity, which has become more extensive in its operations than any such organization supported by private funds with which we are acquainted. This is the Children's Aid Society, which, having its head-quarters in New York and maintaining there many schools, lodging-houses, and other establishments, has also systematically pushed its work into more than half the States of our Union by sending to reside there the children who, by Mr. Brace's policy, were to be withdrawn from the demoralizing influences of city life and placed amid the better oppor-

tunities of rural districts. This policy has been pursued for more than thirty years, and its direct or indirect consequences have been to increase the criminal population of the inland States, to which these boys and young men were transported from New York. It has, in fact, produced on a small scale the effects, both good and evil, which foreign immigration has produced on a large scale. Mr. Brace's institutions have served in some respects as models for other communities, where they have been adopted with many modifications, better suited to the conditions of the State or the city which adopted them.

In two of the States that early established Boards of Public Charity,—Massachusetts and Michigan,—Mr. Brace's system of collecting neglected and dependent children into special schools, and sending them thence into family life in rural districts, was long since put in force as a part of the State administration. Even before the Massachusetts Board was organized in 1863, such a school, though a very imperfect one, was established in one of the State almshouses, at Monson; and it was one of the first tasks of the State Board in 1866-67 to give this State Primary School a better organization and the means of distributing its pupils throughout Massachusetts and the adjoining New England States. This school still exists, though with diminished numbers and some modifications during the twenty-one years since it was legally established; and it has done more good in the training of neglected children than any other State establishment in Massachusetts. Perceiving its useful character, but improving upon its imperfect material conditions, the State of Michigan provided for a similar school at the city of Coldwater in the year 1871; and the new buildings of this State Public School were opened in May, 1874, for about one hundred children. They now contain more than two hundred children; while many hundreds have gone out from them to take their place in family life, and be trained there for good citizenship. In some respects, this Michigan school differs from all other State establishments in this country, so that its managers are perhaps justified in saying of its establishment in 1874, "For the first time in history, a State undertook to secure the maintenance and education of all dependent children before they were ruined by evil influences." Yet this noble policy has not been fully carried out even in Michigan, where there still continue to be a few children in the county poorhouses. Their number does not increase with the increase in population, but fast diminishes, in consequence

of the later legislation requiring all children sound in mind and body, and above two years old, to be sent from the poorhouses to the Coldwater School. The number in the School itself has also diminished for the last year or two, because places in families have been found for the pupils faster than they have been sent in by the courts. This change of policy causes the Michigan system to resemble that of Massachusetts, which will soon be mentioned; but the young offenders in Michigan still continue to accumulate in the Reform School, where the policy of the State Public School has not yet gained favor. The Coldwater School is worthy of praise in all its arrangements, and especially in thus early placing its wards in families. The States of Minnesota and Wisconsin, have lately established similar schools.

In all the States which have Boards, the number of children in poorhouses has been greatly diminished below what it would have been, had the laws on the subject remained as they were twenty years ago. In New York, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Wisconsin, and other States, it is now forbidden by law to detain children eligible for family life in the poorhouses, except on certain specified conditions. The most stringent law of this kind was enacted in New York in 1875, at the instance of the State Board of Charities; and this provides that all children over two years, formerly sent to poorhouses, shall be sent to orphan asylums or other charitable institutions. Such asylums have been generally opened in New York, and now contain most of the children who would have formerly been in poorhouses. An increasing number of children in New York and in other States has been provided for by the various churches which have organized charities for this purpose. The number of children committed under sentence to reformatories is in several of the States proportionately less than formerly; and in one State, Massachusetts, a system has been in force for twenty years, which prevents the accumulation of such children in reformatories, by providing that they may go from the courts immediately into families. This has worked well in the main, and has greatly reduced in number the inmates of the State reform schools for children. The Reformatory Prison now receives some of those who formerly went to the reform schools; while others go to the Primary School at Monson, above mentioned. We have not learned that the Massachusetts system has been adopted in full elsewhere, but some features of it are in force in Michigan and in several other States.

IV. THE INCREASE OF CRIME AND THE REFORMATION OF CRIMINALS.

Although several of the State Boards have been expressly denied the general inspection of prisons,—particularly those of Illinois, New York, and, since 1879, Massachusetts,—yet the connection of all these Boards with the reform schools and other establishments for the prevention of juvenile crime, and the intimate relation between crime and pauperism, have naturally led every Board to take notice more or less constantly of the startling increase of crime in the United States since the Civil War. They have also labored more or less directly, according as their relation to the prisons was close or otherwise, to promote measures of legislation and prison management which should lead to the reformation of criminals. The earliest State Board to take action in this matter was that of Massachusetts, which in 1865 reported at some length on the prison question, and urged that State to adopt a modification of the Irish convict system (or, as it is now called, the Crofton system), which was described at some length in this Massachusetts report. The result there was the establishment of a special Prison Commission in 1870, the opening of a reformatory prison for women in 1877 (managed upon the Crofton system, but with some improvements), and finally the establishment of a reformatory for men, with the indeterminate sentence, school instruction, and the other features of reformatory prison discipline, such as we see in its highest perfection at the Elmira Reformatory of Mr. Brockway, who was himself a member of the Board of Charities in Michigan until he was summoned to New York in 1876, to take charge of that model prison.

The successive steps since taken in Massachusetts have followed strictly upon the principles laid down by the State Board there from 1865 to 1876, although the progress made in the last fifteen years has been the immediate work of the Prison Commissioners and the Advisory Board of women, which since 1878 has become a part of the Prison Commission. In Michigan, Ohio, Illinois, and Wisconsin, also, the Boards of Charities have been active in prison reform; and, in Ohio, the Board has succeeded, with the aid of Gov. Hoadly, in establishing the most complete prison system, in theory, which exists in the United States. And this system is advancing toward practical development. In Rhode Island, the State Board manages the prisons and reform schools with commendable success. In Kansas, also, the same result is aimed at, and perhaps secured. In Minnesota, the Board of Charities, though recently established, has brought

the prison system into a degree of uniformity which is not yet seen in most of the older States.

It will usually be found, however, that the prisons of any State containing as many as a million inhabitants require for their best management a special officer or Board devoted to them alone; and the example of Massachusetts in detaching prison inspection from the developed duties of a Board of Charities will probably be followed elsewhere. Yet, wherever such independent Boards exist, they need to co-operate with each other, as they have always done to some extent in Massachusetts, in Connecticut, and even in New York, where the duty of prison inspection is virtually shared by three or four organizations.

In each State where Boards of Charity are active, they take of necessity a warm interest in the success of reformatories for young offenders; and these Boards have done much within twenty years to improve the discipline and management of such establishments, which ought to diminish crime more than has been actually seen of late years. The truth seems to be that the opportunities for crime that are here offered (in the rapid growth of great cities and the perpetual influx of an immigration which has been too little regulated) have neutralized the effect that reformatories and other agencies for the improvement of young offenders have been able to produce.

In another direction, the State Boards have labored to check crime by special measures,—those, namely, which have been directed against vagrancy and the tramp nuisance. They have procured the passage of stringent laws, and with the aid of charity organizations in cities, have seen that these laws were enforced, so that tramping in several of the States has been materially restricted by this means.

V. IMMIGRATION AS AFFECTING INSANITY, PAUPERISM, AND CRIME.

In this Report, it has been necessary to make already more than one allusion to the great part which foreign immigration plays in the increase of our social evils. Several of the State Boards have been for many years directing attention to this feature of our national life, particularly those of New York and Massachusetts, which, from their position on the sea-coast and their neighborhood to the British Provinces, early became aware of the mischief which unrestricted immigration is sure to bring. The Boards in other States gradually perceived these same evils, and united, five or six years ago, in

urging upon Congress such action as was taken in 1882 to place immigration under the oversight of experienced officials, representing both the National and the State governments. The laws then and since enacted, and the administrative agencies set at work to carry out these Immigration Acts of Congress, do not yet answer all the requirements of the situation; and this Conference will doubtless be asked to memorialize Congress for further legislation. Leaving to the committee on that subject the topics which properly belong to Dr. Hoyt and his colleagues, we may point out what practical action the State Boards have taken in regard to immigrants and their supervision.

The State laws of Massachusetts and New York long since authorized the inspection, registration, and, in certain cases, the removal of immigrants arriving in the seaports of these States; and, to carry out these laws, a tax, called "head-money," was collected at these seaports, until a decision of the United States Supreme Court declared this collection unconstitutional about a dozen years ago. But, in the thirty years preceding the decision, these States had formed and maintained a tolerably useful system of supervision for immigrants, and were in the habit of returning to the countries from which they came insane persons and paupers who were found within the State jurisdiction. Consequently, when the Congressional legislation of 1882 took effect, the National Government was very ready to make use of these existing State agencies to enforce it; and the model thus found working was imitated in other States, particularly in Pennsylvania. In that State and in Massachusetts, the Boards of Charities have now, by contract with the Secretary of the Treasury, the whole supervision and disposal of immigrants under the national laws; but, in New York, an older Board, the Emigrant Commission, has performed these duties, to the exclusion of the State Board of Charities, which, however, has for several years taken control of pauper immigrants, and sent many of them out of the country. It is eminently desirable that there should be but one authority in each State to deal with the delicate questions connected with immigration, and the authority to do this seems to belong more properly to a Board of Charities than to any other organization.

The direct influence of unregulated immigration on the increase of insanity, pauperism, and crime in the United States is manifestly considerable; and evidence of this has been accumulating since the Acts of 1882 were passed. But the indirect influence of such immigration, acting through many years and several generations, is much

more important. To analyze and portray this is difficult, and requires an observation of social conditions in the United States and in Europe which should include at least half a century. It soon becomes obvious, however, to all persons having much to do with the poor, the vicious, and the insane, in those States affected by recent immigration, that there is a disproportionate number of lunatics, paupers, and criminals among recent immigrants and their children. To some extent, this evil is increased by the blending of foreign races in our large cities and in the manufacturing and mining regions of the North. The Boards of Public Charity in the past have had frequent occasion to comment on this, and must continue to do so in future.

VI. ECONOMICAL RESULTS ATTAINED BY THE STATE BOARDS.

In some of the States, a principal function of the Boards of Public Charity has been to prepare estimates and supervise or control the expenditure of charitable appropriations which the legislature makes annually or biennially. The Illinois Board, for example, has devoted much space in its reports to this subject; and the Minnesota Board, following the example of Illinois, has prepared elaborate forms of account and report, which provide for almost every exigency of expenditure in charitable institutions and prisons. Such forms and methods of accounting are very important; for the expenditures made by the public in the administrative departments of charities and correction are heavy at present, and constantly growing heavier. Thus, in the State of New York, during the year 1886 there was received for charitable outlay from the State treasury about \$1,250,000; from the county treasuries, \$1,100,000; and from the city treasuries, \$3,150,000,—making in all \$5,500,000 drawn from the tax-payers in a single year. The expenditure for prisons and the punishment of crime in New York during the same year must have been more than a million dollars. In Illinois, the State Board of Charities was required in the present year to pass upon estimates for current charitable expenditure from the State treasury amounting to more than \$1,000,000 annually; while at the same time special estimates were presented for the enlargement of buildings and other improvements in the State establishments, amounting in two years to more than \$1,500,000. These amounts are exclusive of all the payments for the State and county prisons, for the county almshouses, and for the costly charities of Chicago and its suburbs, which, if added in,

would bring the expenditure from the public treasury, in a single year, to between \$3,000,000 and \$4,000,000. In Pennsylvania, the State appropriations are much smaller in proportion to the population, being for the year 1886 but little more than \$900,000 for the prisons and charities of Pennsylvania in their annual outlay, and less than \$700,000 for improvements in the buildings,—in all, therefore, about \$1,500,000. But the expenditure by counties in Pennsylvania, and by townships and cities, is also quite large, amounting in poor law expenses to more than \$2,000,000, for county and city prisons to about \$500,000, and for other charitable or correctional purposes some \$500,000 more. This brings up the total to about \$1 paid from the public treasury for every inhabitant of the State; and not less than this appears to be the yearly outlay in Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. In Ohio, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Kansas, the expenditure is proportionately less, but is increasing every year. It may be assumed that in the States which now maintain Boards of Public Charity the cost to the tax-payers of the establishments and systems of relief, penalty, etc., which these Boards supervise, is now not less than \$20,000,000 yearly, and may rise to \$25,000,000.

Such being the case, it is evident that these Boards have a broad field in which to recommend, and in some degree to practise, a wise economy in expending the public money. They really control the payment of but a few millions out of these twenty or twenty-five; but, by precept and example, they may do much and have done much to abate extravagance and profusion. These faults show themselves not so much in the direct care of the poor (which is frequently mean and inadequate) as in the architecture of insane asylums, prisons, almshouses, and other buildings, in which the poor are kept, the insane are treated, or the criminal undergoes his penalty. Against extravagance in these buildings, the State Boards of Massachusetts, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Illinois, and Wisconsin have specially protested; and in several of these States they have finally secured the erection of such buildings at a moderate cost and upon a more sensible plan of arrangement than formerly prevailed. In this way, several millions of dollars, in the aggregate, have been saved to the tax-payers; while a further economy has also been secured, in consequence of the arrangements being made simpler and the current cost of management being thus reduced.

In the expenditures which are not directly or even indirectly in the

control of these Boards, much economy has resulted, in some of the States, merely from the introduction of a better system of accounts, which the periodical returns required by law to be made to these Boards have rendered necessary. It would be scarcely credible, were not the fact on record now for many years, with how much looseness the pauper accounts were formerly kept, and how imperfectly the summary of charitable expenditure by towns, cities, and counties was made up. In our opinion, the great apparent increase in pauper cost in Illinois recently, and long since in other States, is due, in a large degree, to inaccuracy of report in the earlier years. It is well known how much the personal expenses of an individual can be diminished, if he is frugal, merely by keeping a daily account of them, and thus bringing to his mind frequently the amount that he is spending. It is not otherwise with the public accounts. So that any requirement which makes them more systematic and subjects them to a new audit, or a more frequent one, is apt to diminish expense.

There are other ways in which the Boards in question have promoted economy; such as, the discouragement of excessive out-door relief; the early rescue of children from idle and vagrant lives or exposure to vice; the separation of one class of the public dependants from another, so that a smaller outlay will be necessary for the whole body of dependants, when due classification has been made; the removal from the State, or to relatives and friends within the State, of persons improperly chargeable to the community where they were found; and in many other ways. Each State has its own method of providing for its poor, its insane, and its criminals; and these vary so much, in consequence of local statutes and customs, that a measure which seems expedient in one State is often impracticable in another. But the general principles of dealing with these dependent and often dangerous classes are now tolerably well understood in all the States where such Boards exist; and no one agency has done so much to make them known to legislatures, courts, and the people at large as the Boards of Public Charity.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

It would be easy to extend these remarks to great length; for the annual Reports of these Boards (now making a library of more than a hundred volumes, some of which are of great size) would furnish material for a volume of inferences and conclusions drawn from their

varied experiences. A few observations only will be made here, of the most general character.

1. These Boards tend to become Administrative, and not Simply Advisory.

Of the twelve State Boards now in existence, only three or four remain simply advisory in their powers and duties, although originally most of them were so established, at least in theory. The Boards of New York, of Pennsylvania, of Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and doubtless of some other States, were created with duties of inspection and supervision, and with powers of advice and recommendation, and only these ; but, in all these States, it has been found necessary or expedient to add executive powers, and to make these Boards, in fact (what those of Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Kansas, and Minnesota have always been in name), a part of the State administration. In New York, for example, executive powers in regard to the support of State paupers and the removal of immigrants and vagrants have been conferred ; in Pennsylvania, these powers, and also the summary powers of a Lunacy Commission ; in Illinois, very extensive powers of audit ; in Wisconsin, the power of the purse over the maintenance of the insane poor in county asylums ; in Michigan, executive powers in regard to children placed in families. The Rhode Island Board, which was at first made partly executive and partly advisory, has now complete control of all the State establishments. In Massachusetts, the executive powers of the Board, which were from the first extensive, have been enlarged until it is now one of the most important branches of the State administration.

These changes in the function of the Boards are not the result of chance, but indicate what we believe to be the fact, that such authority, when once created in a State, will naturally increase ; for occasions arise when power must be lodged somewhere, and no more suitable place can be found for it. No changes, so far as we know, have been made in the other direction,—of limiting the duties of these Boards,—except when special Boards have been created to relieve the Board of Charities of some part of its increasing duties ; and we believe there is no State Board now in existence which possesses less power than when it was first established. This indicates that the confidence originally reposed in them has been justified by their activity.

2. Greater Uniformity in Reporting is Desirable.

The preparation of this Report has led your Committee again to observe what was well known before,—that there is a painful lack of uniformity and completeness in the Reports of these Boards, and that progress of time does not seem to correct this serious fault. The Boards in the North-western States have recently come to some agreement in regard to certain matters upon which they all report; but no two Boards have as yet undertaken to report uniformly the numbers and the cost of all the public dependants of each class,—paupers, insane persons, poor children, prisoners, immigrants, etc., with which they have to do. It is desirable that such a Report should be made for each State, exhibiting not only the number and cost of those persons with whom the Board is directly concerned, but also of all others within the State belonging to these classes with whom the public authorities deal. It is very desirable that this should be done; for until then no considerable accuracy can be had in regard to the statistics of poverty, insanity, and crime in the United States. The figures of the national census, though more correct than formerly, are almost useless for purposes of comparison, and, for this reason chiefly, have not been cited in this Report.

3. The Co-operation of State Boards Less Difficult than Formerly.

But, although uniformity of report be still lacking, practical co-operation between one Board and another is easier and more frequent than at any time during the four-and-twenty years since the first Board was created. The annual Conferences which bring these Boards together make them better acquainted with each other and with the laws and usages under which they act; and there is also an approach to similarity of legislation on the same subjects in different States. Moreover, the operation of the Immigration Acts and of the various State laws concerning the removal of paupers brings these Boards together in opinion and frequently in action concerning this important subject, which is far better understood now than when it was first discussed by this Conference at Detroit in 1875. There is coming to be a substantial agreement in opinion among the State Boards in regard to in-door and out-door relief, the care of the insane, the proper treatment of poor children, and the reformation of criminals. Controversies between one State Board and another, which never prevailed to any great extent, are now practically un-

known. What is still very desirable is a practical co-operation between the State Boards and the authorities of large cities, who too often hold a position a little outside of the regular movement of the State charities. Each great city prefers to obtain some special exemption from the laws which regulate the rest of the State to which that city belongs; and these exemptions, at first scarcely perceived and perhaps really unimportant, become of great consequence when the city attains a population of hundreds of thousands. It then becomes virtually a State within a State, and many anomalies and irregularities in charitable and penal administration result from this. New York and Chicago are the most striking examples of this condition of things, but there is hardly a city of a hundred thousand people which does not furnish some illustration of it.

4. *General Utility of the State Boards.*

An impartial examination of what the State Boards have done within the past twenty years will convince any person of their utility, provided power is given them commensurate with the importance of the questions with which they deal. Those States have profited most by Boards of Public Charity which have granted this power most liberally, and in none of these States have such Boards been abolished or materially impeded in their work. Some of these Boards are now agents of the National Government as well as of their own State; and this function, like the others intrusted to these Boards, is likely to increase as years go by. It may therefore be expedient, at some time in the future, to create a National Board of Charities or a department at Washington which shall attend to such duties as are necessary. In the mean time, it should be the duty of every State to establish a Board of its own whenever the population is large enough to make such an office necessary. In the smaller States, a single officer might be designated to perform this work. In the larger States, a Board made up in part of existing officials, like the secretary of State, the comptroller, and the attorney-general, might be expedient.

NOTE.—A *medical witness*, rather than a *medical certificate* (see p. 83), is required in Illinois; and the Board there inspects county prisons (p. 97).

IV.

Prison and Police Reform.

THE CONVICT CONTRACT LABOR SYSTEM.

BY GEN. R. BRINKERHOFF.

The subject of prison labor under the contract system, which has been assigned for discussion at this session of our conference, has been so fully considered and so thoroughly canvassed in recent years that it would seem that every conceivable argument for and against it had already been presented, and consequently that its further consideration must be superfluous.

Possibly, in the assignment of this topic, the committee in charge did not expect further argument, but, rather, a judicial summing up of the evidence already presented. At any rate, in the little I shall have to say upon the subject, I shall take that view of the matter, and leave my hearers to make up their own verdict in the case.

Among the counts in the indictment against the contract system, that which has been urged more persistently than any other and which seems to be the main reliance of our labor union friends is that it competes injuriously with free labor. A special committee of the Ohio legislature embodies these conclusions in the following statement: "The testimony shows conclusively that the contract system carried on in our penal institutions is directly responsible for a large percentage of the reductions which have taken place in the wages of thousands of our mechanics during the past four years. Nearly every manufacturer who testified before your committee attributed a large percentage of the reductions in wages to the system which enabled manufacturers who have prison contracts at cheap rates to go into the market and undersell them. There is little or no room for doubt as to the evil effect of this system upon the interests of free labor. It not only tends to pauperize honest labor, but it is, in a great measure, responsible for the overcrowded condition of so many of our penal institutions."

Now, if these conclusions are correct, then contract labor ought to be exchanged for some less objectionable system, if such can be found.

But are they true? Doubtless, the testimony of the witnesses, as quoted, was honestly given; but it should be remembered that isolated opinions from a few towns and cities in a single State are of little value in determining the potential forces of trade and commerce in a continental nation like ours, and especially a nation within whose boundaries trade and commerce are as free as the atmosphere, and where, as in the atmosphere, any change of condition is immediately equalized by inflowing currents. Surely, official statistics for the whole country are more valuable than individual opinions.

When we have the entire number of free laborers in any one industry and the entire number of convict contract laborers in the same industry, it would not seem to be difficult to form a reliable opinion as to the effect of one upon the other.

Fortunately, such statistics are now at command, not only in the census returns for 1880, but also in the annual report of the Commissioner of Labor for 1886. The general correctness of these statistics is indicated by the uniformity of their conclusions. The latter are the latest and most elaborate; but, for the uses of this paper, the former are the most available. And, as the results are substantially the same, I take them as I find them, already digested and arranged.

The number of prisoners, all told, in 1880 was 54,495. Of these, 16,583 were employed under contract labor; 8,025, under the public account system; 3,081, under the piece-price plan; 10,060, under the lease system; 10,882 were engaged in prison duties; 3,842 were idle or at school; 1,400 were sick; and 622 were manufacturing for the department of Charities and Corrections in New York City.

Of the total number of prisoners, however, we find that less than one-half were employed in any mechanical industry, and less than one-third were under the contract system. But, for the sake of comparison, we will consider that all prisoners in any mechanical industry were under the contract system, for in this way only can we estimate the possible strength of prison labor, as a whole, in competition with free labor.

Thus arranged, the figures are as follows, and include in the column of free laborers youths as well as adults, and in the column of convict laborers the inmates of reformatories as well as of prisons:

Form of Industry.	Total number of citizens.	Total number of convicts.	Percentage of convicts to citizens.
Agricultural implements,	39,580	284	.7
Bolts and rivets,	5,064	167	3.3
Boots and shoes,	134,256	6,358	4.7
Boxes,	17,400	55	.3
Brick-making, quarrying, etc.,	66,355	1,016	1.5
Brooms and brushes,	8,773	1,786	20.3
Buttons,	5,825	29	.5
Carpeting,	21,023	304	1.4
Chairs,	10,575	3,313	31.3
Cigars and tobacco,	53,297	659	1.2
Clothing,	160,813	1,291	.8
Cooperage,	25,973	821	3.1
Foundry and machinery,	110,351	157	.1
Furniture,	48,729	946	1.9
Hardware,	17,201	215	1.2
Harness and saddlery,	21,446	1,014	4.7
Hats,	22,671	326	1.4
Hemp and lute,	4,306	392	9.1
Hosiery and knitting,	28,885	2,417	8.3
Lime burning,	4,570	218	4.7
Marble work,	21,471	320	1.5
Printing,	58,478	82	.1
Railway cars,	14,232	180	1.2
Saddlery hardware,	2,815	516	19.
Shirts and collars,	25,687	684	2.6
Stoves and hollow ware,	35,000	1,576	4.5
Tanning,	23,812	87	.4
Tools,	13,679	248	1.8
Trunks and valises,	4,534	25	.5
Wagons and carriages,	46,704	1,458	3.1
Whips,	1,056	130	12.3
Wire work,	4,459	208	4.6
Totals,	1,059,020	27,302	2.5

From these figures, it is apparent, therefore, that the total amount of prison labor actually employed in productive industries in the whole United States amounts, at the farthest, to only $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of free labor employed in the same industries.

It should be borne in mind, however, that a large proportion of all prisoners are employed in the same industries inside that they were previously engaged in when they were outside; and, as the product of their labor inside cannot be greater than it was outside, how is it possible that their labor should injuriously compete with free labor?

It is a fact, however, which should also be remembered, that the producing power of convict labor is about one-fourth less than free labor, so that the actual product of convicts in the United States is less than two per cent. of the total production of free laborers in the same industries.

That a variation of two per cent. in the productive power of a coun-

try should be fraught with the direful consequences claimed is simply impossible; and we may as well, once for all, set aside this count in the indictment against prison labor as untenable or at least of very little value.

It should be remembered, however, that wages (the price of labor) are not fixed by the number of laborers or the producing power of any single manufacturing industry or a limited class of industries, but are governed by the total production of all the industries of every kind in the country, and upon this basis the official statistics of the Commissioner of Labor show that the product of convict labor compared with free labor is only fifty-four one-hundredths of one per cent., and, therefore, is practically infinitesimal in its aggregate influence.

That there are a few industries that are injuriously affected is possible, such, for example, as brooms and brushes, chairs, saddlery hardware, and whips, in which the percentage of production ranges from twelve to thirty-one per cent.; but, if so, they can be restricted by legislation or transferred to something else.

Such transfer, however, could only have a local effect, and could have no appreciable influence upon the industries of the country as a whole. In fact, we might suppress prison labor altogether, and it would have no lasting influence upon prices or wages.

The number of immigrants who come to our shores in a single month would be sufficient to supply the industrial position of the suppressed convicts, and by employment outside would soon bring prices and wages to their former level.

The suppressed convicts, in the mean time, must be fed and clothed; and free labor would be burdened with additional taxation for this purpose. If labor of any kind is to be suppressed, it would seem economical to suppress immigrant labor rather than convict labor; but the truth is it is not practicable to do either, and therefore we should address ourselves to the problem how best to utilize both. Prison labor is with us to stay, at least until prison reform, or the millennium, shall reduce or eliminate it.

Contract labor, however, as a competing factor against free labor, is no worse than any other system of the same producing power; and therefore this specific count against it must fail for want of evidence. That there are other counts against it that are valid and sustained by the evidence I verily believe, but to discuss them *seriatim* in the time allotted for this paper is impossible; but still, if we can apprehend and settle a few general principles, it would seem possible to arrive at a safe conclusion without such discussion.

In the first place, then, we must determine the object and purpose of prison labor. If it is simply to make money for the State, and insure the self-support of our prisons, there is no question that contract labor, under existing conditions of prison administration, is the easiest and surest way of doing it. All that is required is to sell out the prisoners as the slaves of a contractor, and then back him up with lash and thumb-screw, so that he can pay his stipulated *per diem* with punctuality and despatch, and the end is accomplished. All experience shows this, and all statistics confirm it. This fact, I think, is undisputed; and, therefore, I will not stop to prove it.

If, on the contrary, prison labor is to be considered mainly as a means for the reformation of prisoners rather than their self-support, then it is very clear that a system which has for its primal purpose the extraction from prisoners of all their working powers in physical labor must, in the nature of things, be a serious hindrance to all efforts for moral and intellectual advancement.

It is true we can imagine an ideal contractor who would operate his contract upon the principles of the Golden Rule and the Sermon on the Mount; but, unfortunately, the highest bidders for prison labor are very rarely that kind of men.

It is true the State might limit the working hours of prisoners, and devote the off hours to moral, mental, and physical culture; but, unfortunately, with the average legislator, the greed of gain or the pressure for self-supporting prisons is so great that we have no examples in that direction. And, if we had, it would be only a partial remedy for the evils inherent in the contract system; and, therefore, experience and statistics seem to concur in the conclusion that, if the reformation of prisoners is to be the dominant idea in prison labor (and surely it ought to be), then some other than the contract system must be adopted. This conclusion is not wholly undisputed; but, in the science of penology, as now accepted by its highest exponents, it is as clearly an axiom as any proposition of Euclid.

To appreciate the reasons for this conclusion does not require any special knowledge; for any one with ordinary common sense can understand that, in the cure of moral ailments, individual treatment is just as essential as with physical ailments. And individual treatment, to any large extent, under the contract system, is simply impossible; for, like the famous Dr. Sangrado, it has but one remedy. Dr. Sangrado's remedy for all diseases was blood-letting. That of the contract system is hard work in heroic cases.

Among penologists, therefore, the question of abolishing contract

labor in prisons is practically settled in the affirmative, so far at least as it applies to prisoners for whom there is any hope of reformation; and, therefore, all that remains now is to select the system or systems to supplant it and to determine the time and circumstances for making the transfer. Upon these points, however, most penologists are conservative; and their advice to legislators is to go slow, and, like a mariner upon an unknown shore, take soundings as they go. One thing, however, is certain; and that is that some form of labor is a necessity,—not only for self-support, but also for the moral and physical well-being of the prisoners,—and there is no occasion for paupers inside of prison any more than outside.

It is also certain that any form of productive labor in prison under any system will, to a certain extent, compete with free labor of the same kind; but that any one system necessarily competes more than any other is not tenable. The legislator, therefore, should not feel restricted to any particular system; for every system may have value for certain classes of prisoners.

The systems proposed as a substitute for the contract system are various, but practically there are but two available,—namely, the State account and the piece-price plan; but, in the adoption of either of these systems, no large success can be anticipated, unless at the same time a large advance over the average of American prisons is made in administration. Certainly, if politics is to rule a prison, the State account system of labor should be kept out; for that system can only be operated successfully upon business principles.

The piece-price plan, as a connecting link between the contract and State account systems, has some advantages over both of the others; but it also requires a non-partisan business management, in order to make it a success financially or in a reformatory sense.

In fact, after all is said and done, administration is more important than any system; and no system can be made efficient under an untrained, inexperienced, inefficient management.

Therefore, the *sine qua non* of any prison system of labor is *efficiency of administration*; and, until that attainment can be made reasonably certain, the contract system of prison labor is the best system.

The conclusion of the whole matter, therefore, may be briefly summarized:—

1. The contract system of prison labor, as a rule, is more profitable to the State, in dollars and cents, than any other; but, on the other hand, for reformatory purposes, it is more objectionable than any other.

2. No change from the contract system should be attempted until the conditions for an improved administration shall be established by the abolition of partisan politics from the prison, and the organization of the entire management upon the basis of integrity, capacity, and experience. Prison officers, like army officers, should have a special training for their work; and promotion should come solely through honorable and meritorious service.

3. All the prisoners of a State should be classified, and each class should be assigned to a prison of its own.

In the prison set apart for those serving life sentences, which should also include incorrigibles and convicts over thirty years of age, the contract system, very appropriately, could be retained entire; for there is no reason why this class of prisoners should ever be made a burden upon the tax-payers.

In the prison set apart for young men under thirty years of age, and convicted of their first offence, the State account system, as a rule, would be found the best for reformatory uses, although the piece-price plan would sometimes be found equally available and more profitable in dollars and cents; but, under either system, educational and technological training should have the larger consideration.

4. In reformatories for boys and girls, the idea of pecuniary profit should not be considered, any more than in our public schools or colleges; and the system of labor adopted should be solely a part of an educational curriculum.

Legislators acting upon these principles will be in the line of safe precedents, and will be more likely than in any other way to obtain results satisfactory to themselves and useful to the State.

CONVICT LABOR FROM A MANUFACTURER'S
STAND-POINT.

BY W. T. LEWIS,

PRESIDENT NATIONAL ANTI-CONVICT CONTRACT LABOR ASSOCIATION.

The present system of contracting, not always to the highest bidder, for convict labor in the different penitentiaries, is nothing less than another form of slavery. During the existence of African slavery in the United States, no white man could earn a livelihood in the cotton fields, nor scarcely earn sufficient to maintain a family, were he employed in some mechanical pursuits. He everywhere heard the appellation "white trash." To-day, certain industries are about destroyed by the system of labor which the States control; and contracting the same brings the State into direct competition with her industrious and law-abiding citizens, who are compelled not only nearly to meet the prices established by the contractors of this prison labor, but are forced out of the market, and after withdrawing are still compelled to pay taxes, insurance, and keep in good repair the shops in which their competitor is manufacturing goods. Yet the State is willing to lease or contract this labor for an average price of forty-eight cents per convict per day, and furnish all food and clothing, etc.

We are aware that the advocates of this system of contracting or leasing claim that it is the only financially successful method of employing the convicts. To the State, it is not so in every case, as many of our penal institutions have been maintained at a loss; but the contractor has been very successful, with his two hundred to two thousand convicts, in manufacturing boots and shoes, which in the States of Michigan, Indiana, Wisconsin, and Missouri produce twenty-three per cent. of the product of these States, and in the State of Illinois forty-five per cent., while the cooperage in the latter State has been almost — and, in fact, you may say wholly — ruined. A cooper in Chicago, who several years since earned his two and two and half dollars per day and had constant employment, is to-day unable to find sufficient to employ him half the time, and for such compensation as might support a Chinaman. Hence, the cooper, who at one time was earning a competency and accumulating against the period of physical inability, is now compelled to find employment on the streets of Chicago. What is the result of such convict productive

labor? Additional cooperation force in the penitentiary. They claim that the product of the convict productive labor is fifty-four one-hundredths of one per cent. of free labor. This may be true in the aggregate, if an equitable distribution of all productive labor in our prisons and reformatories were producing each and every article made in the United States. But, when the penitentiary forces are concentrated upon a few, then this fifty-four one-hundredths of one per cent. augments to twenty per cent. and over, as has been shown in the statistical report by Mr. John S. Lord, Secretary of Commissioners of Labor of Illinois, also by Carroll D. Wright, of the United States Labor Commission. The boot and shoe and cooperation are not, however, the only industries which are very seriously affected, but every mechanic whose occupation is practised by the concentrated forces in all these penal institutions, whose convict productive power establishes the price of the articles thus made. Consequently, there must of necessity be a reduction in the wages paid the free laborer or mechanic, or a withdrawal of the goods from the market, thereby giving a clear field for the contractor of convict or penal labor, who, paying the State but eight to seventy-eight cents per day per convict, or an average of about forty-eight cents per day, realizes the handsome sum of \$1.27 per day per convict over and above his competitor, who pays \$1.75 per day per man for free labor. Each employs five hundred hands. The employer who manufactures with free labor pays \$875 per day, or \$262,500 per year; while the contractor of prison labor pays per day \$240, or per year \$72,000,—a difference of \$635 per day, or \$190,500 per year, for the same class of work. A large manufacturer in Indiana, it is reported, made the following statement: that his firm lost in one year over \$100,000, caused by the overwhelming competitive power of prison labor. There is one penitentiary alone producing over eighteen thousand vehicles per year. The contractor cuts the logs, manufactures the lumber, mines and makes the iron which enters into the construction of vehicles manufactured by him, and at one time sublet the convicts, so that those whom he employed netted him but eight cents per day.

The cocoa matting industry was almost destroyed by the prison competition of Pennsylvania, whose products were thrown upon the market at such ruinously low prices that they forced the free labor employer out of the market. Many other industries might be mentioned, were there time to enumerate them.

Manufacturers suggest that the State account on a diversity of articles is a better system of employing convicts, thereby distributing

the burdens equally upon many industries instead of the few. Concentration should be prevented by removing all labor-saving machinery from prisons. Teach all convicts a trade; allow them a certain percentage of their earnings over and above the expense of maintenance, payable at the termination of their sentence. Upon a second conviction, allow no compensation, but confine them to hard but profitable labor for the State, and by this method or system competition with free labor would be obviated.

The steady advance of convict-made goods, both in quantity and quality, is, to the employer of free labor, exceedingly alarming. The time was when goods of this character could not compete; but, to-day, the manufacturers outside of the walls of the penal institutions are put to their wits' ends to know how to meet convict-made goods and hold their old established customers against the inducements of the contractor of prison-made goods.

The concentration of prisoners in manufacturing any particular article is the destruction of that industry by free labor.

THE POLICE SYSTEM OF MILWAUKEE.

BY COL. F. J. RIES, CHIEF OF POLICE.

The police department of the city of Milwaukee, like similar departments in other cities of our country, is organized for the purpose of executing the criminal laws of the State, as well as the enforcement of the city ordinances relating to the preservation of peace and good order within the corporate limits of the city. The general duties of the officers are to protect the lives and property of the citizens, prevent as far as possible the commission of crime, and promptly arrest criminals and other wrong-doers.

Now, so far as these general objects and purposes are concerned, the aim of this department is, I presume, identical with that of the police departments of all other cities; and it would hardly be proper to take up the valuable time of this Conference with an elaborate paper on the subject, were it not for the fact that, in the details of organization, management, discipline, and equipment, there is a vast difference between those departments; and it is these details which I will undertake to describe as fully as I can in a paper of this kind.

This department is organized under and in conformity with the city charter. The common council has power to establish rules by

which the police force is governed, and to determine from time to time the number of which it shall be composed. The mayor is the head of the department. The rank and number of officers in each department are as follows: 1st, chief, 1; 2d, inspector, 1; 3d, captain, 1; 4th, lieutenants, 3; 5th, detectives, 8; 6th, sergeants, 3; 7th, roundsmen, 3; 8th, patrolmen, 148,—making a total of one hundred and sixty-eight officers for a city containing an area of nearly twenty square miles, with a population at present of one hundred and ninety thousand. Besides these officers there is also employed a police matron, whose duty it is to have charge of female prisoners and to care for lost children until they are claimed by their parents. The officers of each of these ranks are charged with specific duties. It is the duty of the chief of police to cause the public peace to be preserved, and to see that all the laws and ordinances of the city are enforced; and, whenever any violation shall come to his knowledge, he shall cause the requisite complaint to be made, and see that the evidence is procured for the successful prosecution of the offenders. He is also responsible for the efficiency and good conduct of the force.

The duties of the inspector are to assist the chief in his various duties, and to have charge of the force in his absence. He has particular supervision of the detectives, who are especially charged with the apprehension of persons charged with criminal offences and preventing crime by the arrest of known thieves and criminals.

The captain has supervision of the patrol service of the city. He is required to visit each police station daily, inspect the men and the books of the station, and satisfy himself that good order prevails. He is also required to instruct the men in such military tactics as are useful for the police service.

The city is divided into three police precincts, each having a police station. Each of these precincts is in charge of a lieutenant. It is the duty of the lieutenants to see that the patrolmen perform their duties faithfully, investigate all complaints made by residents of their precincts, cause the prompt arrest of offenders, and maintain discipline among the men under them.

The sergeants and roundsmen are to assist the lieutenants in supervising the patrolmen, see that the latter are on their several beats, and report any delinquency they may discover.

The patrolmen are to obey the orders of their superior officers, and are charged with the duty of becoming thoroughly acquainted with their beat, so as to be better able to protect life and property

and maintain good order. They are to treat citizens and strangers making inquiries with civility, and give all proper information in their power. It is also their duty to report all saloons on their beat, and see that no liquor is sold without a license, nor to minors or common drunkards, report all street lamps which are not lighted at night, see that signal lights are displayed at street obstructions, report all defective sidewalks and streets, prevent fast driving, serve official notices, collect delinquent personal taxes, and perform numerous other duties of minor importance. In the performance of their duties, they are to maintain decorum and attention, command of temper, patience and discretion. They must refrain from violent, coarse, profane, and insolent language, and never interfere idly or unnecessarily, nor make an arrest unless they can prove some specific act against the person, but, when required to act, do so promptly and with firmness. It is also their duty to assist and succor sick and injured persons, summon medical aid where necessary, have such unfortunates conveyed to their homes, and be at all times on the alert to relieve suffering as far as possible.

To be qualified to perform all these various duties, and be a good and faithful police officer, requires a man not only of good judgment, energy, discretion, firmness, and courage, but one who also possesses a kind heart and a warm sympathy for the sufferings of his fellow-man.

All officers are entitled to one week's vacation each year, with full pay.

The department has connected with it a complete telephone and signal system, consisting at present of one hundred and five miles of telegraph wire with necessary apparatus, and one hundred and nineteen alarm or signal stations scattered throughout the city. Through this system, every patrolman is kept in constant communication with the central station. He is required to report from the signal stations on his beat, at regular intervals, anything of interest that may have happened, and receive such orders or instructions as his superior officers may wish to give. Keys for these signal boxes or stations are also given to citizens, enabling them to summon almost instant police assistance in case of danger.

This system, which is being continually extended, is under the control and supervision of an experienced electrician, who has one line-man to assist him; while two operators are kept constantly at the instruments at the central station, receiving reports and communicating orders to patrolmen. During last year, 183,230 such reports

were received by the operators. These reports are recorded on blank sheets prepared for that purpose, which are afterward bound, and form a part of the records of the office.

Two of the stations have been erected within the last three years, and are built with the most perfect system of ventilation, and provided with all conveniences for both officers and prisoners. The third station is also well adapted for its use. The cells in all the stations are above the ground. Each police station is provided with a number of comfortable, clean beds, to accommodate not only the officers, but also such unfortunates as are brought to the station preparatory to being sent to a hospital. Each station has also connected with it a fully equipped patrol wagon, manned by four police officers, who are ever ready, night or day, to respond to a call, and will hasten to the place required as fast as good horses can take them. The horses for these patrol wagons are thoroughly trained, so that upon the proper signal they will trot out of their stalls, the doors of which are opened by an ingenious electrical device, take their places at the wagon, and are harnessed by patent appliances within a few seconds, ready to dash to the point of danger. The officers detailed for this service sleep at the station on the second floor; and to save time, when an alarm comes in, they slide down on brass posts erected for that purpose instead of using the stairway. The electric alarm strikes a large gong, lights the gas at night, and opens the doors to the horses' stalls. The great advantage of this time-saving and speeding apparatus is that an officer making an arrest on his beat simply takes his prisoner to the nearest signal box, summons the patrol wagon, and in a few minutes the wagon arrives, takes the prisoner to the nearest police station, while the officer continues his duties on his beat. When a person is found to be injured or sick, the patrol wagon is called; and, being equipped with stretchers and other appliances, the person can be handled with the greatest ease, and conveyed comfortably to his home, a hospital, or any other desired place. In case of serious disturbances, these wagons are of the greatest value in conveying officers in the shortest possible time to the scene of a threatened disorder.

Thus, the system of covering the city by police officers possessing the means of constant communication with head-quarters, to guard the sleeping citizen and his property at night and protect those in need of protection in the day-time, is made as nearly perfect as improved equipments and human foresight can make it; but we must also remember that nothing is perfect, and that it is an utter impos-

sibility to prevent all crime or detect and bring to punishment all criminals.

To show the extensive use of the patrol wagon, it will suffice to quote a few figures from the last annual report of this department. Wagon No. 1 made 1,219 runs, and travelled 1,565 miles; No. 2 made 670 runs and 1,502 miles; No. 3 made 817 runs and 1,676 miles,—making a total of 2,706 runs and 4,743 miles. These figures will sufficiently demonstrate the usefulness of this system.

The total number of arrests made by the department during the year ending March 31, 1887, was 3,726, of which 306 were females. There were arrested for assault and battery 287; assault with intent to kill, 7; threatening to kill, 15; murder, 1; arson, 1; burglary, 39; horse stealing, 6; highway robbery, 8; larceny, 110; vagrancy, 155; violating various city ordinances, 185; drunk, 620; disorderly, 742; drunk and disorderly, 1,121; and 429 for minor offences. Of the whole number, 1,801 were native born, while 1,925 came from foreign countries; 3,687 were white, 37 colored, and 2 Chinese; 1,222 were married, and 2,504 were single; 3,420 could read and write, while 306 were illiterate.

The police returned last year 421 lost children to their parents, returned 135 stray animals to their owners, reported 3,424 street lamps not lighted, reported 671 dead animals to the health department, recovered the bodies of ten drowned persons, assisted 142 injured, sick, or destitute persons, and furnished a night's lodging to 3,329 homeless wanderers. The amount of delinquent personal taxes collected was \$15,058.86.

All persons arrested are arraigned the following morning before the municipal court, which holds a session every day except Sundays and legal holidays, where the case is disposed of according to law. Persons convicted of felonies are photographed, and their pictures form an interesting feature at the central station. These pictures are systematically arranged in a cabinet for that purpose, called the "rogues' gallery"; and a minute description of each is entered in a descriptive book, together with such facts as are known concerning their criminal career. The pictures of noted criminals are also exchanged with police departments of other cities.

Having given you an outline of the organization and purposes as well as some of the work performed the past year by this department, I will now describe the law under which appointments to and promotions in the force are made. In this respect, our department differs radically from nearly all others, inasmuch as we have all

the essential features of civil service reform incorporated in the laws governing appointments. This law, which went into effect July 1, 1885, creates a board of four commissioners, appointed by the mayor; and, in order to make this board strictly non-partisan, it is provided that not more than two of the commissioners shall be of the same political party. This board prescribes rules for appointments and promotions. Under those rules, applicants for patrolman must not be less than twenty-five nor more than thirty-five years of age, at least five feet seven inches tall, must be citizens of the United States, must be able to speak the English language understandingly, and must have resided in the city of Milwaukee at least three years immediately preceding the application. Every application must be in the applicant's own handwriting, and state his age and place of birth, weight, chest measure, place of residence, occupation, schooling, how long the applicant has resided in the city, what trade he has learned, if any, and by whom employed the last three years. Applicants must also state what language, if any, besides the English, they can speak understandingly. Each application must be accompanied by the certificates of at least three reputable citizens, each certifying that he has been personally acquainted with the applicant for at least one year last past, and believes him to be of good moral character, of correct and orderly deportment, of temperate and industrious habits, and in all respects fit for the police service. As a safeguard against partisanship, it is provided that certificates signed by office-holders will not be considered. Every applicant must answer such questions and submit to such examination as to physical strength, capacity, and activity, and also as to educational qualifications, as the board may deem necessary to ascertain his fitness for the service. The educational test consists of reading from print and manuscript, handwriting as shown from copying manuscript, writing from memory the substance of matter communicated orally, arithmetic,—addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division of whole numbers and decimals applied to United States money. They will also be questioned about city government, location of streets, public buildings, and such general matters as strangers in the city inquire about. They must also submit to a thorough medical examination by a surgeon appointed by the board. Those passing a satisfactory examination are then certified by the board as eligible as patrolmen, and, after due inquiry and satisfactory evidence of their good character, are appointed by the chief, subject to confirmation by the board, as fast as vacancies

occur. But the appointment is not yet final. For the first sixty days, they are on probation only; and if, after two months of active duty, any one proves himself unfit for the service, he will be dropped from the force. If, however, he gives satisfactory evidence of becoming a good and competent officer, he is retained on the force, so long as he performs his duties faithfully, and will only be discharged for neglect of duties, disobedience, or other conduct unbecoming an officer.

Under the old system, previous to the enactment of the present law, all police officers were appointed for a term of one year only, and with every incoming new administration most of the officers had to "go,"—not because there were charges against them of any kind, but simply to make room for others who had to be provided for. All this is now changed: politics is absolutely banished from the force, and every man is compelled to stand on his own merits. This has had the effect to increase the efficiency of the department, the men well knowing and recognizing the fact that faithful service and good conduct are the only conditions upon which they are retained on the force. But the law holds out still further inducements to men who are true to their trust. All promotions to higher grades are made within the force. Here again, as in the case of patrolmen, the honors are bestowed upon those who, in connection with their record while in the service, are found by competitive examination to be the best qualified for the place. Under the rules governing promotions, the chief shall give due notice of all examinations for promotion; and any officer who is eligible and who wishes to be a candidate for it may notify the chief in writing of his wish, and the chief will make such provision as shall be necessary, so that the examinations shall not interfere with the good of the service. The rules regulating promotions are as follows: promotion to the position of roundsman will be made from patrolmen who have been in service not less than two years; promotion to the position of sergeant will be made from roundsmen; promotion to the position of detective will be made from roundsmen and sergeants who have been in service not less than three years; promotion to the position of lieutenant will be made from detectives and sergeants; promotion to the position of captain will be made from lieutenants. The inspector is appointed by the chief, subject to confirmation by the board; while the chief is appointed by the board. Thus, it will be seen that every precaution is taken to keep politics and favoritism out, and retain good officers in the department.

The work under this law, for a term of a little over two years, can be summarized as follows: five examinations were held for the examination of two hundred and twenty-seven applicants for patrolmen, of which one hundred and thirty-eight passed. Of these, ninety-one were appointed on the force, twenty-five were rejected by the medical examiner, twenty were rejected for various causes, leaving two not yet appointed on the list of satisfactory applicants.

For promotion, two examinations were held, resulting in the promotion of three patrolmen to the rank of roundsmen, one roundsman to the rank of sergeant, two roundsmen to the rank of detective, and one sergeant and two detectives to the rank of lieutenant.

This, in brief, is an outline of the organization of the Milwaukee police department, for the maintenance of which for the present year the sum of \$154,250 has been appropriated. This sum covers not only the salaries, but all expenses of every description of the department.

V.

Organization of Charities.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE ORGANIZATION OF CHARITIES.

BY CHARLES D. KELLOGG, CHAIRMAN.

Scope of the Report.

In order to exhibit the existing state of that recent specialty in charitable relief which aims at building up an organic unity of benevolent endeavors, this paper is restricted to a discussion of reports received from societies avowedly adopting the distinguishing characteristics of Associated or Organized Charities. Of these, the report of last year recognized fifty-two as affiliated by policy and correspondence; and this is the number now enrolled as in active association with each other. For, while the organizations at Denver, St. Paul, Portland, Me., Sandusky, and one or two other points, are either silent or report themselves as in dormant condition, those which have been formed within the past year at Bridgeport, Conn., Davenport, Iowa, Newburg, N.Y., Omaha, Neb., and Wilmington, Del., have kept up the former aggregate. From the beginning of our systematizing movement, the features in which it has characteristically expressed itself have been co-operation, registration, investigation, and conference; while in some localities material relief from funds at its disposal has been a deplored necessity, which must be reduced to a secondary incident of the work, or, better still, entirely abolished. All the societies distinctly accepting these methods have been asked to contribute reports on a uniform plan as the basis of this paper; and thirty-four, or sixty-five per cent. of the whole number, representing eighty-eight per cent. of the population in their fields of operation, have responded. Their exhibits have been tabulated in a schedule appended to this report. Of them, twenty-five have returned classified records of their dealings with beneficiaries,

adjusted to a common standard and indicating uniformity of methods. This is an advance upon the report of last year of nine societies reporting and of eight concurring in the analysis of their processes. This gain of nearly twenty per cent. in the number of organizations established upon uniform standards is important, as showing the gain in assimilation of distinctive principles.

In view of the universal and profound preoccupation of the public mind with financial and sordid conceptions of charity, it might have been expected that in many localities associations lifting our banner and using our phraseology would be formed, of which the promoters had not disengaged their ideas from definitions and principles discarded by genuine charity organizationists. As a rule, societies so incongruously led have added no strength to our work of organization, but have rather beclouded and distorted the public judgment concerning it; while seldom have they maintained themselves as relief agencies. A few such wrecks lie along the road we have come; but, fortunately, they are rarer than reason would have predicted. An example occurs in Sandusky, whence the head of her Associated Charities writes that "the only active officers are the president and treasurer, who, in concert with the city authorities, administer relief." He narrates the brief history of that organization as a movement begun in December of 1884, from an impulse to relieve the distress incident to a dull business season, and to find succor for the unemployed, which enterprise culminated in the following spring, leaving the Association from that time to this to the management of two persons. Clearly, this never was a Charity Organization Society except in name. In Portland, Me., the position is somewhat different. There a sturdy purpose exists to revivify the association, which two years ago threatened to die. The secretary describes the obstacles encountered thus: "With us, a correct understanding of the principles and methods of the society and the spirit of co-operation are of very slow growth. Another great difficulty is the rarity in man or woman of the qualities needed for a successful visitor." Here there appears to be a clear-headed purpose to introduce a sound movement into a community unprepared to comprehend it, while in Sandusky the initial proceeding was vitiated in the hands that promoted it. Probably the reason why so few lapses from charity organization have occurred is that the movement has extended by a process analogous to what physicians call infiltration. It spreads from a centre where it has established itself to another having some common element of sympathy or interest with the first. In other words, its

growth is not sporadic, but by propagation from one point to another. Emissaries from established organizations are invited by and sent to new localities to organize them into "Associated Charities," and hence there has been a tradition and a genesis to give unity and uniformity in the growth of all our societies. Societies not thus in some degree propagated by us are seldom of us. Hence, if our principles are sound and worthy of dissemination, it is of utmost importance that all of our societies should conform in all distinctive features to a common standard and to uniform methods. Each is likely, if not sure, to become an infiltrating centre for outlying localities; and each should therefore be fitted to convey true maxims and exact types of Charity Organization to new communities. Otherwise, the types will change by translation, until they are no longer recognizable as of one origin and spirit; and the cohesion and unity of our great reform will be irrecoverably lost. To this point the report will return further on, as it is one of great practical importance.

Progress for the Year.

At the present time, besides the fifty-two societies founded unequivocally to promote the organization of charities in the United States, there is one other of kindred character in Montreal; and ten associations under our own flag definitely related to them in purpose, if not in strict form. Great Britain has thirty-eight local branches in organic relations with the parent society in London, and eighty-two affiliated societies throughout the kingdom in active correspondence and co-operation with them. From these centres, the movement has extended to ninety-three centres in Europe, Asia, Africa, and Australia. There are, then, in the world two hundred and seventy-seven organizations, at the present time, known to us as advocates in speech and practice of our principles. Their rapid extension in the United States is inspiring. In 1880, this type of effort was first recognized in the National Conference of Charities and Correction, and accorded a distinct place among its constituent sections. Then there were but twelve associations of this character in the country. Five years ago there were twenty-four, and their numerical gain has been one hundred and seventeen per cent. in a half decade.

As indicative of the hold this movement has upon the entire country, it may be observed that the societies charge themselves with responsibility for the succor of the dependent in the entire community in which each has taken root, that they naturally spring up in those dense centres of population where the need of system and

the demands upon philanthropy are more urgent and great, and that the fifty-two societies now in existence are located in municipal centres, where more than 8,300,000 inhabitants are lodged. Thus, they have hold upon one-seventh of the entire population of the United States, and that portion the one where destitution assumes its most pitiable or its most dangerous phases.

The present report is concerned with thirty-four reporting societies, representing cities containing 7,308,000 people, the eighteen societies not replying to our letters representing only 1,006,800, or less than one-eighth of the total organized municipalities. It would add much to the value of these reports if they were equally well analyzed and complete in details. For example, of the thirty-four societies reporting, nine have made no classification of their beneficiaries, or else such a one as was useless for analysis; neither have they furnished records of any discrimination in their mode of treating them. In some instances, the reports show discrepancies between the classes named and the total enumeration, so that the one does not account for the other. The ratios to the whole of those adjudged to need permanent or temporary assistance, or work rather than relief, or to be unworthy altogether, vary so widely as to indicate great differences in the systems pursued. Eleven societies make no record of investigations made for other associations or institutions, and eighteen make no returns of registration. The natural inference from these omissions is that the societies making them have done little or nothing in the way of co-operation, and therefore nothing for that vitally characteristic work of organizing the varied charities of their localities which has given name and distinction to our movement. Thirteen make no showing of frauds exposed or suppressed, and fourteen none of families or persons apparently rendered self-supporting,—the crucial standards whereby our older societies, both in Great Britain and America, have asked the public to judge their work. Much as these divergences are to be deplored, it would perhaps be unfair to attribute the omissions of these reports to neglect of the duties which are implied thereby. The more probable explanation of many of them is that the delinquent societies have failed either in systematizing their work or in keeping exact records of it, and so were unable to answer many of the questions submitted to them,—a condition of things not surprising in view of the rapid extension of the organization, and the necessary committal of its interests in many localities to inexperienced hands, deprived of opportunities for consultation with older associations. Of the eighteen

societies which make no showing of registration, ten have been founded within three years, and embrace centres of population aggregating only 564,000. The sixteen societies reporting registrations cover populations of 5,300,000, or sixty-four per cent. of the inhabitants collected at the centres where our standards are reared, and with one or two exceptions are among our earliest organizations.

Uniformity Desirable.

These statements bring us face to face with a problem which, at least while the reform at which we are aiming is in its infancy, would seem to involve the gravest interests of "Charity Organization." Encountering not only the unconcern which obstructs the progress of every new enterprise, but the more insidious preoccupation of the public mind with definitions of charity which differ from ours, it would seem most desirable that all who enroll themselves under our banner should use the same vocabulary in the same sense,—should present one common front to the country, and should act under one purpose and discipline. This unity will make our phrases comprehensible: it is a source of momentum that will give us power.

Formal uniformity could be secured if a standard analysis were generally adopted as the basis of records and reports, if all exchangeable documents were of uniform size, and if the technical terms used in classification of details not only were free from ambiguity, but were universally employed in the same sense. The dangers of embarrassing our work by too rigid systematizing, of barring the entrance of new experiments, and of substituting stereotyped perfunctoriness for free impulse, are at present remote; while the immediate results of the uniformity described would be these: new organizations would have a standard to guide them in their plans; the vital methods of our work would be more uniformly practised in every community; fewer capricious inroads would be made upon our system; changes would be made by conferences, where a hearing could be given to all sides; the data upon which are made all those generalizations which are to guide our studies and practice would be more exactly given; comparison of results in different localities would be facilitated; records exchanged would be susceptible of uniform binding, easier reference, and better preservation; and the public would be more rapidly and accurately informed of the maxims and conclusions of charity organizationists. To reach results so desirable by expedients so simple fully justifies systematic consultation of representatives from the various societies interested to prepare and rec-

commend the requisite forms. Initial steps in this direction have already been inaugurated by the "Council of Charity Officers," a purely voluntary body, composed of the paid officers of the several Charity Organization Societies of the country, which has undertaken the following experiments:—

A central registration, at Buffalo, N.Y., of all travelling mendicants and impostors, based upon reports from all affiliated societies in the United States.

The preparation of a telegraphic code for charitable inquiries.

The compilation of a primer of organized charity for educational use at new centres.

A plan to secure uniform information concerning methods and results from all kindred societies, as a basis for intelligent action upon the social problems which confront them.

An effort to introduce the teaching of Charity Organization principles and methods into high schools, colleges, and seminaries.

Statistics.

While the thirty-four reports upon which this paper is based differ in their completeness and modes of exhibiting facts, yet by retaining those the details of which can be grouped under some systematic classification, a series of results and percentages can be reached which show how far Charity Organization has taken hold of the problems it has chosen to attack, and what value attaches to its work. These thirty-four societies represent municipalities embracing one-eighth of the population of the United States, and probably one-sixth of its entire pauperism. From several computations, so varied as to be a check each upon the other, it appears that the urban pauperism of the country is one to sixteen; that is, there is one applicant for the aid which lies outside of the natural offices of kindred and neighborhood in every sixteen of the population. If the rural statistics could be added, probably the ratio would be very materially less. These thirty-four societies are therefore confronted by 456,000 paupers. They have treated with their own agencies and by their own methods 42,376 cases, and investigated 14,623 cases for corresponding or co-operating societies, institutions, and churches. The committee understand these 56,999 cases to mean 56,999 families, which, at the estimate of the Census Bureau of five persons to each family, comprise 285,000 persons, and constitute 62.5 per cent., or five-eighths, of the whole pauperism within the bounds of their operations. They further report that they have obtained co-operation with sixty-

six per cent. of the voluntary charities for out-door relief in their localities, with sixty-nine per cent. of those administering in-door relief in institutions, with eighty per cent. of the boards for distributing relief from taxation, with forty-five per cent. of the churches, and with fifty per cent. of private beneficence. By this co-operation is to be understood that, in such a percentage of instances where our societies have sought or desired it, co-operation has been accorded to them. The percentages represent the co-operation which has been promised and available in the prosecution of their work rather than that which has been actually and fully used.

It is in registration that the relation of co-operation to the total pauperism of the cities is most distinctly seen. On this subject, but sixteen societies have made report, eighteen passing it in silence, among which are the great towns of Brooklyn, Detroit, Indianapolis, Minneapolis, and Philadelphia. Doubtless, in some instances, the omissions have grown out of the defective methods of keeping records; and, in any event, the proposal of registration to churches and older charitable enterprises, working on other principles than ours, seems to them to assail their independence and to imply defectiveness in their methods. Many times this species of correspondence is reluctantly and partially accorded, and here and there it is wholly refused. The failure to secure it is much to be regretted; for we have failed to take possession of the field, where a part of its pauperism is concealed from us. The societies reporting registration, however, represent 5,300,000 population. They have rendered or profited by this service with sixty per cent. of the voluntary societies for out-door relief, with seventy-seven per cent. of the institutions for indoor relief, with ninety per cent. of municipal boards for dispensing public aid from taxation, with nineteen per cent. of the churches, all within the limits of their respective fields. The relation of any society to private beneficence must always be a matter of mere conjecture, but our societies estimate no inconsiderable degree of service rendered to individual citizens wishing information to guide the distribution of their personal alms. In the foregoing statements, the estimates of the reporting societies have been accepted as the basis of computation; and they present so favorable a showing as to excite the comment, "they are almost too good to be true."

The ground is surer under our feet when we come to those reports which, dealing with the dependants of whom they have taken sole charge, have analyzed them into distinctly characterized groups. There are twenty-five such reports available for our analysis; and

they cover 27,970 cases, representing by safe conjecture 111,880 souls, and on them adjudication passed as follows:—

Worthy of continuous relief,	2,888	or 10.3	per centum.
Worthy of temporary relief,	7,451	" 26.6	" "
Needing work rather than relief,	11,280	" 40.4	" "
Unworthy of relief,	6,342	" 22.7	" "
	27,961	100	" "

For several years past there has been a very close correspondence of published experience between Boston and New York; and in these cities the percentage of those needing work rather than relief has been 53.4, and of the unworthy 15.8. While they found that employment was the proper relief for fifty-three in every hundred of their cases, the general experience has formed that opinion in only forty of one hundred cases; and, while they have adjudged sixteen in one hundred to deserve police discipline, the aggregate of all reporting societies represents about twenty-three as requiring such treatment. On the other hand there is a notable unity of opinion that only from thirty-one to thirty-seven per cent., or say one-third, of the cases actually treated were in need of that material assistance for which no offices of friendly counsel or restraint could compensate. The logical application of this generalization to the whole country is that two-thirds of its real or simulated destitution could be wiped out by a more perfect adjustment of the supply and demand for labor and a more vigorous and enlightened police administration. Subsequent and wider experience may modify this conclusion, but hardly can wholly overturn it; and, while it stands, it is of highest significance in the solution of the poor-problem. It throws a flood of light upon the question, showing how far destitution is criminal, how far it is misfortune that may be made transient, and how far it is a permanent and genuine claim upon our humanity. To know this is to know the general lines to which our remedial efforts should be shaped.

A few remaining facts complete the exhibit of Charity Organization at the present time, to one or two of which return will be made for brief comment. Sixteen societies are still dispensing relief directly to their beneficiaries, although four of them claim to restrict it to emergencies too urgent for other recourse and two to payment for labor performed. The ten which relieve without restriction reach less than one-fourth of the populations among which our organization has taken root. In the judgment of your committee, they would be truer exponents of Charity Organization purposes if they took the

earliest opportunity to abandon wholly the distribution of every form of alms. By so doing, they would clear from their paths many an obstruction; for they would cease to excite the jealousy of purely relief associations to which they now make themselves rivals, and they would present to their own members and agents a clearer and simpler conception of their dominant aim. Their dispensation of alms confuses and distracts the public mind, already entangled in conceptions of charity almost exactly antagonistic to those of the charity organizationists; and the good we desire cannot be achieved by it, while it re-enforces the evils we deplore. Sixteen of the reporting societies have district or ward branches under their control; and eighteen maintain conferences, with more or less frequency, for the amplest consultation of the workers one with another and for the exchange of experiences. In New York, the society regards such conferences as most desirable; but, owing to the newness, magnitude, and complexity of its work, it has not as yet been able to establish them. Newark alone reports disappointment with them. Fifteen others regard them as successful, of which Philadelphia rejoices in their educational value, Indianapolis regards them as "of the greatest importance," Brooklyn declares them "indispensable," and Boston says they are "one of the most essential features of our system, and tend to create a unity of aims and methods in those who attend."

Thirty societies report the maintenance of one hundred and sixty-eight officers and agents, a number made requisite by the numerous branch or subordinate district organizations in such large cities as Baltimore, Boston, Brooklyn, Buffalo, Cincinnati, New York, and Philadelphia. If these branch organizations were counted as distinct societies,—and many of them are responsible for districts as populous as Newport, Binghamton, and even Bridgeport, Conn., or Columbus, Ohio, and Syracuse,—our roll of Charity Organization Societies in the United States would enumerate more than a hundred of them.

Twenty-eight societies believe that they have made distinct gains in the past year, which are shown by better financial support, by increase in co-operative services, by juster popular comprehension of their purposes, by the enlargement of their field and a higher grade of duty done, and by perceptible reductions in the mendicant ranks. Twenty societies believe the municipal systems of relief with which they are in juxtaposition have improved; and Buffalo, which from the outstart gained a strong influence over the distribution of civic relief, has held her own in that respect, and can look for but little more than the anticipated abolition of out-door aid by the city. 3,064 frauds have been recorded as suppressed or exposed.

Letters are often received by the older societies asking how the methods and principles of charity organization can be applied in small communities where the benevolent impulse is strong and the applicants of relief are increasing. This inquiry will be lucidly answered by the paper by Mrs. Charles R. Lowell, of the New York State Board of Charities, which this Committee will have the honor to present.

Friendly Visitors.

The right arm of aggressive work is the corps of friendly visitors. There is little exaggeration in saying that all the administrative work of our societies and all their labor to systematize and co-ordinate the multitudinous charities of the country are undertaken to clear the field for such influences and offices as characterize the work of the Friendly Visitors. These executive labors are voices crying in the wilderness, "There cometh after me that which is mightier than I, the latchet of whose shoes I am not worthy to unloose." The boundless divine compassion and the unfailing divine expedients are lodged in the breasts of the Friendly Visitors. A goodly brigade of them are now in the field. Twenty-eight societies enjoy the unpaid services of 3,228 of them. The lowest in rank has but one visitor to each 36,666 of the population, which is one for each 2,292 of the apparent paupers of the city. If the actual cases treated were divided equally among this corps of visitors, each would have 164 families to supervise and befriend. Salem, N.J., has one visitor for each 190 of her citizens; while Taunton, Mass., has one for every 1 4-10 beneficiary family. These are the extremes embraced in our records. Eleven societies, among which Boston alone of all the large cities takes a place, have a visitor for every six or less of the cases with which they have charged themselves. Brooklyn has one for every eight beneficiaries.

A few words may well be spared to emphasize the inestimable importance of extending the system of friendly visiting. To show what remedial grasp our organization has actually taken upon the problem of dependent or simulated destitution, a computation has been made which shows that in twenty-eight cities one friendly visitor is at work for every 3,487 inhabitants. This would consign to his or her charge 215 dependants, if this system had taken control of the entire town pauperism. Taking into account only the actual recipients of the care of our organization in these cities, there was but one visitor for each twenty-four dependent families,—a duty far beyond the

capacity of the most vigorous, judicious, and zealous person satisfactorily to perform. The Boston standard is as high as an efficient system ought to go, and there one visitor is in service for every five immediate beneficiaries of the Associated Charities Society. To reach the whole pauperism of the fifty-two localities where our societies are established as thoroughly as in the case of Boston, the present list of 3,228 visitors should be extended thirty-two-fold, and our brigade should grow into a grand army of 103,750 visitors. That is only one volunteer for eighty inhabitants, or one person out of every sixteen families. Who can describe the sweetness and order and light which would surge like a tidal wave through these fifty-two cities, flooding every part thereof, at the tread through their streets of a hundred thousand strong of pitying, rescuing American men and women? The problem of friendly visiting has now been broadly stated upon its numerical side, and here this report might well leave it; for the nature of the work and the methods of obtaining volunteers are to be presented to this Conference by Mrs. James J. Putnam and Miss Zilpha D. Smith, both of Boston, who have kindly consented to discuss them, and an important department of visitorial work of great practical value will be explored and illustrated in a paper from Mrs. John H. Scribner, of New York.

But two further points remain to be recounted by your Committee to complete the presentation of facts which it has gathered, and they both tend to re-enforce the plea for more friendly visitors.

Families made Self-supporting.

It has been a charity organization maxim from the beginning that the true test of efficient relief was not to be sought in the amount of money given away, or in the large number of those for whom it was disbursed, but in the number permanently removed from the list of dependants by placing them upon their own natural resources. This result must for the most part be achieved by friendly visitors, either men or women. In other words, the kind of duty which is devolved upon them is indispensable in putting a broken or fallen family again upon its own feet. To them may be attributed most of what has been accomplished thus far in this direction. Twenty societies report for the last year 3,342 cases of transfer from dependence upon charity to self-maintenance. According to Mr. Edward Atkinson's latest standard of what is necessary to the subsistence of a laborer's family, which is \$546 a year, this translation from unproductive conditions to self-support would add \$1,800,000 to the in-

come of the country annually. Let it be noted that only one society reporting no Friendly Visitor returned any restorations to independence, while almost uniformly the greatest number of restorations go hand in hand with the greatest ratio of visitors to beneficiaries; and hence the economic result just given may fairly be put to the credit of the friendly visiting system.

Those who examine the tabular exhibit appended to this paper may observe that the proportion of friendly visitors and of families rendered self-supporting to the number of cases treated is, with one or two exceptions, conspicuously greater in the small than in the large towns. The phenomenon is instructive and intelligible. The smaller the community, the more thoroughly do the same social forces penetrate all through it. In the great cities there is in a local sense practically no neighborhood. The classes which wealth and poverty and occupation make have drifted apart, and are more monotonously uniform. The merchants' clerks, and much more the manufacturers' hands, live in opposite directions from their employers; and their lives only touch in the store and the shop. Social circles are based upon some community in fashion or riches, or business or church relations, without the slightest regard to locality of residence. One's friends may be scattered over a wide area, while one has no knowledge of the family within the next door. Nowhere else are a man's circle of acquaintance more monotonously graded, nowhere else can a man be so sequestered and lonesome as in a great city. Moreover, the surface and rapid transit of great cities distributes population according to wealth; and the poorer stratum is in one district, the middle classes in another, and the rich upon some Beacon or Murray Hill. There is no solvent of social ties like urban life. It is not so in rural towns. There the interest of the whole community can be concentrated on a single aim; there neighborhood means acquaintance; there the word of counsel, of cheer, of admonition, is preceded by years of friendliness. Men speak of each other's affairs with fuller knowledge and discernment. Hence it is that the problem of calling friendly visitors into the field is easier in rural than in metropolitan communities; hence, the depressed are more susceptible to neighborly offices and accessible to the opinions of those in other circumstances than theirs. Where the varied social forces of a community play most freely through all its divisions, there the problem of pauperism is easiest of solution. This is what our thirty-four reports are distinctly teaching us. Hence comes the inference, sharp and clear,—the inference already often drawn from thou-

sands of experiences, in hundreds of localities and through a dozen generations,—that the cure of pauperism is a social question. It is not one of alms, nor of a redistribution of wealth, but of genuine neighborhood. Neighborliness must be established as a feature of civic life. The Samaritan must be found who will rescue the man who has fallen among the thieves of misfortune, of temptation, and of oppression, of penury. Lo! that Samaritan is found, and is on the way to the half-dead and despoiled. He is the Friendly Visitor.

HOW TO ADAPT "CHARITY ORGANIZATION" METHODS TO SMALL COMMUNITIES.

BY MRS. C. R. LOWELL,

NEW YORK.

I have two objects in preparing the following paper: the first, and most important, to show that it is desirable for small and moderate sized communities to adopt at once some system of organized or scientific charity; and the second, to show how easily an attempt may be made to do this.

In trying to reach these two objects, I shall write for those who are ignorant of scientific charity, or at least for those who are novices in it; and I shall therefore begin at the beginning, which is, of course, a definition of what scientific charity is and what are its special principles and aims.

I do not like the name we have chosen, because "charity" means, in common speech, some kind of help given to "the poor"; and I wish we could find a name which would cover the idea of good done to the whole community, to the doers, as well as to others. I should very much like it if some idea of good citizenship, and of the duties done by, and for, citizens in mutual service, could be embodied in our name. "Organized charity" is very limited, and does no justice to the aims of the societies we represent.

The work of scientific charity may be said to be both preventive and curative; that is, its proper field is moral, mental, and physical hygiene and medicine. It aims to keep the members of each community in which it takes up its abode in a healthy state of soul, mind, and body; but, where misfortune or disease has overtaken any, it aims at thorough and permanent cure.

It is neither content with bad circumstances which lead to misery, nor content to accept the theory that there must always be a given number of suffering people, and that the only thing to be done for these is in some degree to mitigate their distress, feeling sure that, when these miserable ones die, others as miserable will be on hand to fill their places. Scientific charity strives to cure the misery of those who suffer now, and to work constantly toward such improvement in circumstances that the number of the miserable shall diminish day by day.

Of these two branches of its work, the preventive and the curative, the former is by far the most valuable and the most encouraging. And it is the fortune of small communities to be able to make this the most prominent; for, in the small community, the persons who have fallen into distress are few comparatively, the accumulation of the evil forces that corrupt and degrade is not large, the number of well-meant but dangerous schemes of benevolence is not many, and, in fact, the chance is presented of beginning at once to do *right* instead of having first to undo a great mass of wrong. There are three classes of service that may be rendered to a community:—

1. Such as benefit directly every member of it, to which class belong the following: good drainage, good schools, public reading rooms and libraries, public parks and play grounds, decent public bathing places, clean and orderly streets, the preservation of peace and good morals, and the enforcement of the liquor laws. Every one of these things is essential to a happy and prosperous public existence, and all can be secured in a small community by the exertion of a few public-spirited individuals. And yet how many are without them! And, although in a small community their lack may not be felt at once, yet the want of them tends to the creation of such a population as will be a never ending curse to themselves and others.

The cost of these public blessings should be borne by the tax-payers, and of course there is no necessity for "organized" or "scientific charity" to secure them. But where no citizen has looked far enough into the future to feel their need, and a charity organization society is established, it can do no greater good than by turning public attention to the great benefit which such improvements would be to the town or village, and by educating public opinion to demand them.

2. The second class of services to the community are directly serviceable to only some of its members, but indirectly to all, in preserving a healthy public life. Such are lectures to working men

or women; industrial education for men and women and training-schools of various kinds for boys and girls; the collecting of savings from adults and children; bringing beauty and music and refinement within reach of those who cannot themselves attain them; and encouraging the formation of clubs for self-improvement and mutual benefit by young men and girls.

None of these things can be attained except by sincere and devoted personal effort on the part of at least a few individuals, and these present the special field for the preventive work of organized charity. The expense of such efforts may be borne, so far as possible, by those directly benefited by them, but supplemented (as education is in colleges) by the gifts of others.

One of the most important advantages of all this second class of benefits lies in the opportunity it gives for personal acquaintance and mutual service between sets of people who, but for some such link, would live all their lives in absolute ignorance of each other's best qualities, or indeed almost of each other's existence. If only the members of each community can meet as human beings, can have some sort of knowledge of each other, and can bring to each other the benefits which each finds in his or her own special sphere, we shall have a healthy, social existence. Some of us lack the independence, the strength of character, the courage and practical ability which come from contact with real life, from the necessity of having to work for one's daily bread; while, again, those who have had to face poverty and hardship from their youth up have often never been able to gain the beauty and grace of character which education and the contact with the minds of the great of all ages ought, at least, to teach. If those who have had these latter advantages can place their high moral standards, their trained intellect, their refined tastes, at the service of those who have not been so favored, while they learn from them the higher virtues of courage, patience, self-sacrifice, and industry, both will be blessed.

In neither of these classes of public service can we trace the germ of evil. They are all aimed at the education of the mind or character, and whatever of good can be learned by any human being is so much gain both to the individual and to the world at large. We may safely teach all the good and useful things we can, and may safely learn them, feeling sure that they have the divine quality of eternal life, and will continue to live and benefit mankind after we have passed away.

3. Of the third class of benefits, this cannot be said. These con-

sist of all such as are done to individuals in physical need. They deal with the body, and they possess the qualities of the body: they are transient and pass away. And not only that: we are exposed to the constant fear that they may lose their character, even of temporary good, and may be transformed into evils,—to us, to those we seek to serve, and to all the community. They furnish the difficult field of the curative work of “organized charity,” and spread a snare for the feet of the unwary.

It is necessary that misery should be relieved, that the hungry should be fed, the naked clothed; and yet, if we for a moment are tempted to look upon this as *the* important part of our work, or even as *an* important part of our work, if we let ourselves be led astray to regard the body more than the soul, confusion and defeat befall us. Therefore, what is called “relief” must be kept out of sight,—must be looked upon as merely an unimportant matter,—while the building up of character, even in (or indeed especially in) those who come to us in the direst physical distress, must be always held to be the one vital work before us.

Every plan for the help of any person must always be judged by this principle: it must be met by the question, “Will this course work good or ill to him? and, if good temporarily, will there be a reaction of evil to him or to others?” A student of human nature knows that to do for another what that other should do for himself injures his character. Therefore, we must start with the fundamental principle that all relief of bodily wants by outsiders is in itself bad. It is at best a “low benefit.” As Mr. Emerson says,—“It is a low benefit to give me something: it is a high benefit to enable me to do something of myself.” The great danger of all such “low benefits” is that we may create “parasites,” or, in other words, paupers.

Drummond, in his “Natural Law in the Spiritual World,” says: “*Any principle which secures food to the individual without the expenditure of work is injurious, and accompanied by the degeneration and loss of parts.*” The social and political analogies of this law are familiar. . . . All nations which have prematurely passed away, buried in graves dug by their own effeminacy; all those individuals who have secured a hasty wealth by the chances of speculation; all children of fortune, all victims of inheritance; all social sponges; all satellites of the court; all beggars of the market place,—all these are living and unlying witnesses to the unalterable retributions of the law of parasitism.”

Mr. Drummond quotes also from Prof. E. Ray Lancaster, as follows:

"Any new set of conditions occurring to an animal, which render its food and safety very easily attained, seem to lead, as a rule, to degeneration, just as an active, healthy man sometimes degenerates when he becomes suddenly possessed of a fortune or as Rome degenerated when possessed of the riches of the ancient world. The habit of parasitism clearly acts upon animal organization in this way. Let the parasitic life once be secured, and away go legs, jaws, eyes, and ears: the active, highly gifted crab, insect, or annelid may become a mere sac, absorbing nourishment and laying eggs." Or, as we see too often, the support of life being secured by 'charity,' the active man may become a mere pauper.

It thus appears that the great object of scientific charity is to avoid this catastrophe, and to so work that paupers and paupers' children may be re-educated and redeveloped into self-respecting men and women, full of noble independence, instead of following a course which will surely degrade into the pauper rank those who have been overtaken by sudden calamities.

Another fundamental principle of scientific charity is what we all know as "adequate relief," which means such relief as we should give to a brother or a sister in distress, and which means, consequently, that each person is to be *kept hold of* just so long as he or she needs a helping hand or a helping heart.

This curative part is, as I have said, the difficult, the disheartening side of the work; and it is because this part grows apace in every community in which charity is not organized, is not scientific, until, as in our great cities, the amount of it seems to absorb all the time and thought of those who seek to work in a better way, that it is not only easy, but essential, for every small community to bestir itself betimes before the mischief is done and while the field is open, and to start from the beginning to *prevent* pauperism rather than to wait until it has assumed gigantic proportions, and then try to crush it. While the task is easy, put your hand to it,—sow good seed before the mischievous weeds have a chance to grow.

I have said that it is easy *to try* to do all this,—to try to carry out all the plans and to reach all the objects of scientific charity; but I cannot truthfully say that it is easy to do it, for it is a great work, it is a noble work, and great and noble ends cannot be attained by small and feeble means. We reap what we sow. We cannot get out more power than we put in; and, as we aim at large results, we must use energy and devotion to obtain them.

Given a measure of energy and devotion, of earnestness and perseverance, the methods of the work are very simple.

If ten or fifteen men and women make up their minds that they will have a Charity Organization Society, or whatever they may choose to call their association, all they have to do is to meet and organize, adopt a constitution, and go to work.

The following is a simple form of constitution adapted to a small community:—

THE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF

CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE I.

The name of this society shall be "The Charity Organization Society of —, —."

ARTICLE II.

This society shall be conducted upon the following principles:—

1. Every department of its work shall be completely severed from all questions of religious belief, politics, and nationality.
2. The society shall not directly dispense alms in any form.

ARTICLE III.

The objects of this society are:—

1. To prevent children from growing up as paupers.
2. To encourage thrift, self-dependence, and industry, through friendly intercourse, advice, and sympathy, and to help the poor to help themselves.
3. To raise the needy above the need of relief, prevent begging and imposition, and diminish pauperism.

To accomplish these objects, it is designed:—

1. To provide that the case of every applicant for relief shall be thoroughly investigated, and the results of such investigation placed at the disposal of the public officer having charge of the poor, of all the churches and charitable societies of —, and of private persons of benevolence.
2. To obtain employment, if possible; if not, to obtain, so far as necessary, suitable assistance for every deserving applicant, from benevolent individuals, churches, etc.
3. To make all relief, whether by alms or charitable work, conditional upon good conduct and progress.

ARTICLE IV.

The society shall be composed of the following persons:—

1. Members of District Committees.
2. Annual members (any person who shall subscribe not less than \$2 to the society annually).
3. Life members (any person who shall subscribe \$25).
4. *Ex-officio* members, the public officer having charge of the poor, and one delegate from each of the churches and charitable societies of —.

ARTICLE V.

The management of the society shall be vested in a Central Council, which shall have the control of all questions of principle and all matters relating to the work of the society :—

The Central Council shall consist of :—

1. Two delegates from each District Committee of the society.
2. The *ex-officio* members of the society.

The officers of the council shall consist of a president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer, and one or more agents, and shall be elected by ballot at the first meeting of the council after the annual meeting of the society.

The officers of the council shall be the officers of the society.

There shall be a regular meeting of the council on the last Friday of each month, and special meetings may be called by an officer with the concurrence of three members.

At any meeting of the council, five members, other than *ex-officio* members, shall constitute a quorum.

ARTICLE VI.

The town (or village) shall be divided, for the purposes of the society, into such districts as the council may designate; and the council may at any time rearrange such districts.

In each district there shall be a committee of three or more residents. The council shall appoint the members of such committee. Each District Committee shall, subject to the control of the council, manage the work of the society within its district; and each District Committee shall deal only with the cases of persons resident in its district.

It shall be the duty of a committee of a district to see that every application from persons living within the district is thoroughly investigated; to study how applicants for relief can be raised into independence, and to make them self-supporting, whenever possible; to obtain aid for deserving applicants, unable to earn their support from the appropriate sources; to see that all children in the district attend school; to try to secure a good sanitary condition of the district; to see that such reports are made to the Central Council as the latter shall require.

ARTICLE VII.

An annual meeting of the society shall be held at such time and place, in or about the month of —, as the council may designate; and the council may call special meetings of the society.

ARTICLE VIII.

This Constitution shall not be amended except by the resolution of a two-thirds vote of a meeting of the council, at which at least ten members, other than *ex-officio* members, shall be present, due notice of such amendment having already been given at a previous stated meeting of the council.

The provision for the appointment of one or more agents is elastic, as in different places the requirements will differ. In some, no paid agent is required; while, in others, it might be necessary to have one for every two or three districts.

Having thus created the society, the next step is to put it in working order; and, officers having been chosen, a plan for districting the town or village must be adopted, and chairmen of the District Committees appointed, whose duty it will then be to make the principles and objects of the society known to the appropriate people in their respective districts, with the purpose of interesting them in its work and inducing them to become members of the District Committees. A circular should then be drawn up, explaining the proposed work of the new society and asking for co-operation and for annual subscriptions of \$2, for the salary of the agent (if necessary), for printing, rent, etc. It should be especially stated that none of the money subscribed is to go to the poor, in order to avoid misunderstanding (and this I believe to be absolutely necessary for the success of the society); that is, no general fund should be raised for "relief," and all such help, when necessary for distressed individuals, should be kept out of sight, the money procured for those special persons, and when not all used for them returned to the givers. "A fund" is an immense and constant temptation to those who have it to spend, serving to turn their minds and hearts away from better but more laborious ways of helping their fellows.

The society, then, being well established,—its districts laid out with convenient and easily to be remembered boundaries, and its existence made known to the community,—its duty is to keep itself constantly before its public; for, to be truly alive and useful, it needs the co-operation of all. It cannot "see that no children grow up as paupers" if the public officers give relief and train them to be paupers. It cannot teach thrift and habits of industry if begging from door to door is rewarded by food and doles. It cannot diminish imposition and pauperism if the population loves to be imposed upon; and so one of its duties is the education of the well-to-do in the community to some sense of their duties toward their less fortunate fellow-citizens. It needs, also, constantly new workers, and must perpetually seek for such,—especially among the young, whom it can touch with the enthusiasm of humanity,—and train them in the pleasant ways of scientific charity, giving them the chance to enter into new relations with those around them whose lives lie in different fields, whom they can teach and from whom they can learn, with mutual benefit.

Each District Committee should be allowed a large liberty, so that each may develop some special kind of beneficent scheme for its own people, and thus there will be as many centres of life as there

are District Committees; and that happy community, wise in time, will escape the suffering, the degradation, and the danger with which we, in the larger cities, are to-day brought face to face, because our predecessors failed in their duty to their brothers fifty or a hundred years ago.

But remember always that it is our *brothers* for whom we are to work, and that it is *we* who are to work. It is not "the poor" who are to be "relieved." No society will do what we need, no organization will do, no machinery will do: these are only the means of bringing us near to the men and women who need us; who are dying, body and soul, for need of us; and who are not only our brothers, but the brothers of Him who said, "If ye have done these things unto the least of these my brethren, ye have done them unto me."

THE SAVINGS SOCIETY.

BY ANNE TOWNSEND SCRIBNER,

NEW BRIGHTON, N.Y.

In the year 1879, the Newport (R.I.) Charity Organization Society found that the poor who applied to them for relief during the winter were so careless and improvident that in many instances, while their neighbors, on exactly the same income, lived comfortably throughout the year, they were obliged to come often for assistance.

After discovering this fact, the society determined to help these improvident creatures to think of the future and to lay by money in summer, their harvest season, for the extremity of the winter. With this object, they secured the services of four ladies, who volunteered to call every week from house to house to collect the small sums that these people could afford to lay by. On first introducing this plan, a small premium was offered to the savers in the shape of groceries and coal at wholesale prices; but this plan was afterward abandoned, and now no inducement of any kind, other than the natural advantage of money laid by, is offered by the society.

In one year, by means of this house to house visiting, \$690.19 was collected in small sums; and, since this beginning, over \$10,000 has been saved by many of those very people who before were begging for relief.

In the year 1885, knowing of the great success of the Newport Savings Society, the Castleton Charity Organization Society (New Brighton, Staten Island) decided to take up the work.

The Savings Society on Staten Island has had remarkable success. In the two years of its existence in Castleton, nearly \$4,000 has been collected; and last year alone more than eight thousand visits were paid to five hundred different families.

The Edgewater Savings Society (Stapleton, Staten Island) was the next to introduce the society; and the success here was even more remarkable, \$3,000 being collected in one year's time and the number of visits mounting far into the thousands.

The operation of the society is very simple. In the Staten Island Charity Organization Societies, a number of small bank books were procured, with the rules of the society printed on the outside cover. These were enclosed in an envelope and given to the saver, who, on joining the society, promises to lay aside a certain sum each week for the collector. The collector calls on some regular day, and enters in ink the date and the amount received in the saver's bank book, and also in the book which the collector keeps. The saver is given to understand that the society is just like a bank,—the money part of it, or all of it, can be withdrawn at any time; the saver can drop out of the society at any time,—and that in joining no special obligations are incurred.

The advantages which must follow such a system of regular visiting are apparent to all engaged in the Charity Organization Society work.

The main objects, gained, however, by the introduction of the Savings Society are two: first, the inculcation of thrift; and, second, the aid to friendly visitors which the society offers. To raise the needy above the need of relief is one of the first principles of the Charity Organization Societies. That the Savings Society is a wonderful aid in this work of helping the poor to help themselves has been proved beyond question by the society's work on Staten Island.

One case was found where aid had been given unrestrictedly for some time. A visitor, a stranger to the family, called, and asked the members to join the Savings Society. To the collector's amazement the wife and mother joined, and deposited ten cents at once, and after that became regular savers. It is the collector's aim, if possible, to get the person or family to save for some object, such as the next winter's supply of coal or clothing, or some debt which must be met. Often, it is found that the children of a family will join the society or perhaps the mother or father will save for the children.

As the object of the society is the promotion of thrift and self-respect, and as a man with a bank account is twice the man that

he is without it, it is far better that, when the saver gets five dollars, a bank account in the saver's own name should be opened in some trustworthy bank. The postal savings banks would be of great assistance here. It is often found that the savers are afraid of banks, and, of course, in these cases it is not urged; but it is part of a collector's duty to suggest a trustworthy bank where deposits can be made.

The accumulation of money in the hands of the collectors is one of the difficulties in the way of the Savings Society. In the Edgewater Society, each collector hands the money once a month to a general treasurer. The First District Committee of Castleton have also adopted this method; but it is extremely undesirable that large sums should accumulate, and it is far better that the saver should be urged to open an independent bank account. The collector, of course, continues visiting after the bank account is opened. It is encouraging to see how surprised and delighted many of the savers are at the way the pennies mount so quickly into dollars. One woman, when she withdrew her money to buy clothing and coal for her family for the winter, said, with tears, to the collector, "Oh, ma'am, I feel as if you had made me a present of it."

The better class of those struggling to get along in the world grasp the idea of the society far more quickly than their poorer neighbors. Where improvidence has taken a deep hold, it is difficult sometimes to persuade a family to save or to think that they *can* lay aside anything out of their limited incomes. It is sometimes hard for the collectors themselves to realize that the saving is possible; and it is simply by remembering that others have managed it by dint of strictest economy and forethought, and by inspiring faith in themselves and in their own powers, that the collector can succeed. It is a known fact that a man earning steady wages from April to November only has supported a family and even laid by enough to purchase his own home. In this case, the wife and children rendered efficient help.

The savers often tell the collectors how they have longed to save, and how easily the money slips through their fingers. The little hoard in the toe of the stocking once broken, the whole insensibly melts away. It is almost universally the case that the savers are not only delighted to join the society, but they are extremely grateful to the collector for giving them the opportunity to help themselves. One woman wanted to open accounts for herself and five of her ten children. In another case, however, a woman told the collector that she knew that the collectors simply wanted the interest on her money; and she refused to join. This was an exceptional case. One woman

who drew out \$15 at Christmas time insisted on presenting the collector with a dollar of it, to be used as she pleased or else to be given away in charity. Another, whose husband was a scissors merchant, gave two pairs of scissors to the faithful collector who had visited her for a year. Numerous incidents of a like nature could be cited, to show the gratitude and delight of those who join the society.

According to the rules of the society on Staten Island, a week's notice must be given to the collector before any money can be withdrawn. A saver thinks twice before the collector is asked to bring the money; and the rule is also an excellent one, as it prevents any sudden demand, which might be inconvenient to the collector, if made without warning.

It can easily be seen how the work, if once thoroughly undertaken, is capable of development in various directions. Co-operative societies, building associations, etc., could be started in connection with the Savings Society; and, if nothing more is attempted, employers could use influence with their employees. Women, especially, could do a good work in this direction in helping their servants to start bank accounts. Also, members of the society could be induced to lay by money to buy their own homes; and it can be easily seen how the work could be developed in this way.

The second advantage of the Savings Society is the great aid it affords the friendly visitor. The difficulties that many persons experience in visiting for the first time in the homes of the poor are well known. On Staten Island, it has been found that, armed with Savings Society books, an entrance is at once gained in homes where entrance would be impossible on other than a business footing. Besides this, it is found that many persons who as friendly visitors are unable or unwilling to visit the poor are glad to undertake the regular work of collecting.

To accomplish the most good, the Savings Society ought to be introduced systematically. Every house and every family in a block should be visited, and given an opportunity to avail itself of the advantages offered by the society. The whole visit should be conducted in a most business-like way. Careful courtesy should be shown; and, of course, the words "charity" or "poor person" should not be uttered. In introducing the work, rebuffs will often be met with, although as it grows, and becomes known, this is rarely the case. It is better, where possible, for one person experienced in visiting the poor to undertake the introduction of the collector to the savers, or to make the work known in one district, or even

in part of a district. Very much depends upon this first visit of introduction. Some people, with good hearts and the best intentions, are without tact; and the work is seriously injured by a wrong impression produced at first. It is well, also, to make one person responsible for the visiting in a district, as it is then more apt to be thoroughly done. It is best to begin with only a few savers, and, as the work becomes familiar, to increase the number. On Staten Island, one or two collectors have as many as thirty savers; but this is almost too many, unless one can give two or three days a week to the work. If the collecting is undertaken with the right spirit,—that of giving the truest help possible, of making one's influence felt in these homes,—five or six savers will keep any collector busy. The mere business transaction takes but a moment: it is the aid that lies beyond this, the advice and assistance to be given by friendly intercourse, that calls for the devotion of one's best powers.

The visits of the collectors are often anticipated as the event of the week in these homes. Gradually, the visits come to be expected. The rooms are cleaned, flowers are arranged on the table, and great disappointment is expressed if the collector fails to make an appearance. Indeed, delinquent collectors will often have it said to them that, as they did not come on their day, the money was now spent which had been saved for them. It is well, also, to choose a day as soon after pay-day as possible, as often then the poor wife has a chance to lay by a little before the money has dwindled.

The entrance in the home once gained, much can gradually be attempted. It takes time to win confidence; but, by steady conscientious visiting, it is sure to come. But, if advice is given prematurely, it is apt to be resented; and, in any case, tact must be used.

One collector on Staten Island carries healthful story papers, like the *Youth's Companion*, *Harper's Young People*, and *St. Nicholas*, from house to house. Finding that, if the papers were given outright, little value was placed upon them, this collector lent the papers, and collected them from week to week. This plan has been productive of great good.

Mothers of families often ask for advice or sympathy from the collector in cases of sickness or emergencies, or perhaps advice will be asked in relation to the training and discipline of children or of their settlement in life. Employment is often sought for, and in many instances the best aid can be given to a family by finding it for them.

Several of the Staten Island collectors have accomplished a won-

derful work among their savers. One lady presented flowers and seeds to all of those she visited, and showed them how to care for them. She also gave some games to a number of families, to induce the young girls and boys to stay at home in the evening. The reading matter would also have this effect. When this collector left for a few weeks in summer, she gave toy banks to all of her savers, to be opened by her on her return. Some of the collectors have obtained flowers and fruit from the Flower Mission for those who were sick or aged.

One collector copied a number of receipts for cheap and palatable ways for cooking meats, and distributed the copies where she thought they were needed. Advice is often asked in regard to food and its preparation, and also in relation to domestic economy. A thorough knowledge of sanitary laws and of laws which specially concern the poor will often be found invaluable.

Octavia Hill's *Homes of the London Poor* will be of assistance in visiting the squalid and very poor. The only limit, in fact, to the good to be done lies in the collectors themselves. Their utmost powers and capabilities will often be stretched, and everything will depend upon the spirit they carry into this work. The mere business transaction, if nothing further is attempted, is really of importance sufficient to warrant any one disinclined for the further development of the idea to act as collector.

By systematic visiting of each house and family, many sad cases of need are discovered, which otherwise would never have been known. The worthy poor are always sensitive and shrink from the exposure of poverty, and one of the pleasures of this Savings Society is the finding and helping of these deserving cases. It should be distinctly understood, however, that the collector comes to take money and not to give it; and help should be always given through the appointed channels of relief. There will be little trouble on this score if the collector stands firm. Not alms, but a friend, must be the motto; and loss of influence will be the penalty for injudicious giving. The collectors at present are all ladies; but, if gentlemen could be induced to begin the collecting, much more could be accomplished. It is very necessary that heads of families and young men should be influenced to gain thrifty habits and taught how to invest the money saved.

The Savings Society can be introduced into clubs of various kinds; namely, Girls and Boys' Clubs, Workingmen's Clubs, Mothers' Meetings, etc. In these cases, the savers would bring the money

to the collector at some stated time. The society has already been introduced with marked success into various public schools, and it would be of benefit if it could be introduced universally throughout the country.

The introduction of postal savings banks by the government is earnestly to be desired; but, much as these banks are needed, it is impossible for them to take the place of the Savings Society, although they would supplement and greatly assist the work of that society. The friendly relations which this regular visiting brings about between collector and saver, the intimate knowledge of the homes and lives of the poor, the real help which this society has been the successful means of affording,—all show the value of the work.

Its adoption by the Charity Organization Societies of the country would give them twice the power they now have. Imagine the result if every man, woman, and child of the laboring classes who needs it in any way had the sympathy and aid of a friend who never lost sight of them, and who was able, by means of a larger cultivation and happier life, to bring comfort and brightness to their weary lives of unceasing toil.

And, indeed, the self-sacrifice needed for the work will not be in vain. Many a selfish soul could be waked from its lethargy if it could once see the dramas enacted in so many lives around it. Each new work introduced finds new workers waiting for it. And, armed with a definite aim and a definite purpose, how many new workers might be enrolled in our Charity Organization Societies!

FRIENDLY VISITING.

BY MARIAN C. PUTNAM.

I have been asked to write a paper on the "theory and value of friendly visiting as compared with other forms of charitable work"; and I shall try to show that it is a simple and efficient means of helping people, and also that it affords an excellent training for any larger field of work. By "friendly visiting," we mean seeing and knowing people in their homes, and trying, by means of personal influence and practical suggestion, to improve their condition. Many persons agree in thinking this a good method of helping the poorest and most ignorant classes. Others, on the contrary, while admitting that there is no harm in visiting sick old women or taking children on country excursions, believe that any good worth working

for must come from improving the conditions under which the people live. Better schools, better prisons, better laws, model tenement houses, more open spaces, cheap amusements,—these things will benefit the community, it is said ; but “visiting” is like pouring water through a sieve,—no permanent good can come from it.

I believe that both kinds of work are needed, and should be done at the same time. The low standard of morality and intelligence and the lack of self-control, that keeps large numbers of people very poor and degraded, come partly from external conditions that may be improved, and partly from weak wills that may be strengthened and wrong tendencies that may be checked.

Those of us who believe in the power for good of friendly visiting do so because we have become convinced that only as the people we try to reach can be roused to wish for better things is there any hope of improving their condition. There must be some force besides that of improved surroundings to help turn these to good account ; and that force must come from the people themselves, for whose benefit schools and libraries are founded. We all know the force is there ; that, however deadened in the minds of the drunken or disheartened parents, at least in their children there are all the possibilities for good as well as for evil that children are born with. The question is how to get at this force, how to turn the current of these lives into the right channels, and make the next generation better than the last. I believe this can be done by approaching people in their homes, as families, better than in any other way. So long as we know only this boy or that girl, we look at the problem solely with a view to his or her interests ; but let us know all the members of a family, and our conclusions as to what should be done for any one of them may be very much modified.

The great power of a wise personal influence and example to find and bring out the good in seemingly vicious people is clear to any one who has been able to watch the results of faithful visiting. But good results cannot be reached unless the visitor works in a spirit of patience and courage, with a longing to help his neighbor for his neighbor's sake and a clear idea of what he is attempting.

I do not include here those visits to the sick or unfortunate made for the sake of giving pleasure. These have their own place ; but I am now considering visiting as one of the agencies of social reform, to which we look for elevation of the poor and ignorant.

The object of a visitor should be, first of all, to try to make the family better and happier where they are and with the resources they

have. We come to realize after a time that the majority of poor families in a city must continue to live without any very striking change of circumstances; that the children of intemperate parents must, except in very flagrant cases, remain at home, and be cared for as best they may be; that boys and girls must grow up surrounded by temptations, to take their part, by and by, in making or marring the welfare of the community. It is here—in the homes of the lowest class of the residents of a city or town—that the true work of a visitor lies. Visiting is not primarily relief work, though relief may be necessary, nor the work of helping people to go where their labor is more needed, important as that may be. It has its own large field, which is one that is often turned away from as hopeless. It is a visitor's part to go into a wretched household as a friend, to make acquaintance with the members of it, win their confidence, and become familiar with their circumstances, temptations, and difficulties, in order to find out what can be done to improve their condition. He must look at life from their point of view, till after a time, by sympathy, knowledge, and affection, he finds himself at last at the place where his advice may be given and taken, where his coming brings happiness and hope and a new desire to live rightly.

We cannot easily overestimate the good that friendly visiting may do, but we should also remember that we may inflict serious injury on our ignorant neighbors by injudicious action. If we are impatient to alter their situation at once, by taking away ill-fed children from their parents, for instance, instead of trying to have them better fed where they are, or by eagerly furthering every vague desire of theirs to get a different kind of work, regardless of the fact that the dissatisfied persons may not have any fair chance of succeeding in their new trade, our hasty judgments may only serve to increase the difficulties of the case.

A visitor must have the courage not to act till he understands the family. He is there to help them, but not to harm them by rash interference. He should be as loath to do anything to break up the family as if it were that of his own brother or sister by blood. He must be prepared to see suffering and wrong-doing that he cannot prevent, and be willing to wait till he knows what the difficulties and troubles are, and then be ready to make the most of the opportunities that arise for meeting them. There are many families where the evils are of such a kind that it is plain they cannot be cured except by the persistent effort of these people themselves, which makes the outlook seem hopeless. It is precisely here, however,

that a visitor can be of use. He can lead them to believe that the effort is worth making, encourage them to make it, and take hold with them to meet the difficulties in the way.

For example, let us take a very common case. Here is a woman with half a dozen children, and a husband who works and usually supports the family, but who also drinks. The woman is ignorant and shiftless. She has begun her housekeeping with a few pretty things that have either been broken, lost, or packed away "out of the dirt." She is soon overburdened with cares, and she loses any ambition she may have had, and drinks a little herself. Her children are dirty and ragged, and fed on bake-shop pies. They are brought up without any training, half-nourished, half-clad; while their mother idles away much of her time talking with neighbors who are worse than she is, and their father feels that he has more than done his part if he provides them with shelter and food.

We can see the future of such a family with dreadful clearness. The first illness may leave them destitute, and, led to seek alms, they lose what little independence they had left; or at any time the habit of drinking a little may grow into confirmed intemperance, and the man can no longer get steady work. Shiftlessness and intemperance, which lead to crime and pauperism, are the inheritance of the children, who easily yield to the many temptations that surround them. Relief cannot help them. Education, which might do so much for the children if it went hand in hand with home influences, often only disgusts them with their parents, and makes them turn with eagerness towards people whom they consider a little higher up, — smartly dressed, perhaps, but sometimes more dangerous companions than the old ones. A girl in a bad quarter of the city, who despises her mother's advice and protection, is exposed to the gravest dangers. We constantly hear it said that we cannot help the older ones, but that we must save the children. It seems clear to me that to help one without the other is usually an impossible task. Their interests are too closely bound together.

Such families as the one I have described, unless they are to be broken up, can only be helped by some direct influence that infuses a different spirit, new hopes and wishes, into their lives. This, difficult as it seems, may be done by a good visitor. Little by little, the interest and dulled ambition of the mother may be awakened. The active sympathy of the visitor may rouse her to care for the little details of comfort and decency in her household, the total disregard of which is at the bottom of much misery and vice. The

possibilities of making a room pretty, bright, and habitable; the pleasant games at home and the parks and libraries abroad that are never restorted to; the clothes that might be warm and respectable, if sensibly chosen and well made and mended; attractive reading that might be found,—all these matters, trifling in themselves, may be made the means of reforming the home life, and consequently changing the whole future of the family. In most cases, it is possible to do this. And no one can know, until he has fairly tried, the great interest he himself will feel in the details of the daily life of a household after he begins to see how important they are to the growth of self-respect and happiness; and his own interest will communicate itself to the jaded mother and fretful children to a surprising degree.

A genuine concern in all the small matters of home life quickens the visitor's sympathies, wins the affection of the family, and is the surest way of getting an influence over them. Such an influence, once established, may be used for their good in many ways,—to help the man or woman to stop drinking, to advise them about work, to help them to take care of their children, and to decide what to do if the children go wrong. But most important and most hopeful is the influence acquired over the children themselves. A thoughtful and sympathetic friend may help them to make the best of their lives, and his counsel at some crisis may save them from serious evils or start them on the path towards prosperity.

I have spoken of the reluctance one should feel to separate parents and children; but I believe no one should be a visitor who is not ready to take such a step, should it prove the right thing to do. A visitor ought to know the laws of the land, and be able at the moment, when such a course is the best one, to have a man prosecuted for non-support of his family or to have children taken away from parents who neglect them. But, except in cases of actual cruelty, this should be a last resort.

Many persons who are willing to take a part in managing institutions and societies of various kinds for the benefit of the poor shrink from visiting, even when they believe in its efficiency, because they believe that it requires special gifts and talents. It seems to me that sympathy with the needs of the people to be helped, a strong wish to help them, and good judgment are the only talents required to make a visitor; and these, surely, are not less, but more necessary when we try to help numbers of people instead of one family.

For some years, as secretary of one of the District Conferences of

the Associated Charities, I was very familiar with the work of the visitors; and I was surprised to find that it was not one or another temperament which made good visitors, but the good sense and devotion which they brought to their work. A successful visitor may be a silent and reserved person or frank and cordial, young or mature, lively or serious, either a man or a woman. It matters very little so long as he cares enough to help the people he visits to stand inconvenience and discouragement on their account, and to carefully consider what ought to be done before taking active measures for interfering in their affairs.

Instead of needing unusual gifts, this work is one which any one who cares to do it may learn to do, and where long experience is not a necessary element of success; for it is a work for which our daily lives fit us. It is merely going a step farther than we are constantly obliged to go at home, and applying the same judgment and sympathy that we use in our own households or for our natural friends to the difficulties and problems of these other households which so much need the stimulus and help that we can give them. I do not mean to say that it is work for very young persons, because it brings with it a sad knowledge of the wrong and misery in the world that it may be well to keep from them, and because questions come up which they cannot deal with; but inexperience need not keep any one back, especially if the visiting can be done with the advice of more experienced people, who are always on hand and more or less under direction.

I have tried say to that I believe a wise visitor may be an important power for good in the community; that his work is to help the members of one or two households to live better and to be better; and that, in so far as he succeeds, his success works a radical improvement in the people he deals with.

But suppose he fails. Suppose after several years' work the family he has tried to help seem as hopeless as ever. Will he not rightly feel that, if he had been working at a more practical problem,—starting a boys' or girls' club, for example,—the time would not have been thus lost?

In the first place, I would answer that failure of conscientious, devoted work in the homes of the poor is very rare, though the results may not be exactly those which were looked for; but, granting that the visitor may have failed, he can hardly count the time lost, if his wish to do something for the public good was a lasting one. Perhaps he will have learned more, from his failure, of the life and condition

of the poor, more of their needs and limitations, than some one else who has been treasurer or chairman of two or three societies during the same time. Whatever the actual results may be in a given family, the painstaking, earnest work of a visitor, extending over a number of years, will give him a knowledge of the characters and lives of the people he wants to help, that will make his judgment of the greatest value to any one who is starting any kind of scheme or society intended to benefit the ignorant and destitute.

Is not one reason why so many relief societies, amusement clubs, etc., do harm instead of good, that they are started and managed by people who do not know the needs they try to meet? We all feel what an advantage it would be if a day laborer of intelligence and character, whose life had brought him very near to his shiftless, destitute neighbors, would become a member of a relief or tenement-house committee. An experienced visitor should be able to bring to any work for the material, moral, or legal improvement of the condition of the lowest classes the kind of knowledge of their lives that is possessed by one of themselves.

In conclusion, let me say once more that any good that comes from friendly visiting is important and far-reaching, because it touches the springs of human action, tending to develop self-respect, domestic happiness, and higher ambitions. The smallest result of this kind is worth much patient endeavor, for it may prove the bit of leaven that will leaven the whole lump. While we do all we can to improve the laws, dwellings, and institutions of our country, let us not forget this other and more personal work that should be carried on at the same time with public reforms. Not only is it worth doing for its direct results, but it is invaluable as a training to prepare us for dealing intelligently with the problems of crime and pauperism, whether we are practical workers or whether we are simply helping to create that strong force, public opinion, without which no great reform is possible.

HOW TO GET AND KEEP VISITORS.

BY ZILPHA D. SMITH.

I have gathered together in this paper the points which seem to me most important or successful in the relations of our different district conferences in Boston to their visitors; and, if I dwell on little things, it is because I have seen friendly visiting fully successful only where a committee has been patient with details and has recognized their bearing upon the broad lines of our work.

The means used to get visitors may be divided into mechanical and personal. The mechanical means are:—putting brief, pointed appeals in the newspapers, placing placards in the rooms of Christian associations and divinity schools, reading short notices in churches and public meetings, and printing annual reports. A notice read in church will attract more attention if the minister adds a word of his own. A newspaper item asking for a visitor who can speak a certain foreign language almost always brings one or two volunteers; and what better tie between strangers in our land and the friend they find here than a knowledge of their native tongue?

While much may be accomplished by mechanical means, all our conferences agree that personal work is still more effective. Most of our new workers are secured by those already interested. Sometimes it is a help to take to a possible visitor written sketches of a few families, which emphasize their good points as well as their bad ones and tell what a visitor might do.

They who refer families to us can in some cases be secured as visitors; and, as this continues an interest already aroused, it is a natural and helpful arrangement.

Those who are invited to attend the meetings, or asked to help in the clerical work, may in the end become visitors. Either plan brings them under the influence of the Conference, and allows the work they hear about to make its own persuasive impression.

All these methods are worth trying,—the mechanical ones at judicious intervals, the personal in different directions at every opportunity.

Who shall do this personal work? I think the Committee must bear the responsibility of enlisting visitors and keeping them inter-

ested. A wise Committee becomes familiar with the condition of the families visited, shows a constant interest in the visitor's work, gives information and suggestions, urges the visitor to use his ingenuity, and encourages him to keep on, neither deserting his family when discouraged nor deeming himself of no use when they are prosperous. When a Committee does all this, visitors are glad to bring from time to time fresh recruits to a service they have found helpful and inspiring.

Let the Committee, on the other hand, act chiefly as an adviser of its paid agent, and decide what shall be done in the crises which poverty brings, without any long looks ahead to see what preventive measures may be initiated now, or be led away by general schemes to the neglect of individual work, expecting that each visitor will go on for himself after a family has been assigned to him, and the number of visitors will steadily diminish.

One who holds only the position of a visitor can help to convert a committee which fails on the friendly side of the work, if patient, good-tempered, and in earnest in the desire to strengthen the work of the Conference. Written reports which include direct questions as to the problems in hand and which require an answer make the Committee think about the visitor's work. They become interested in the constantly changing problem of the family, and the experience gained in one case enables them to offer suggestions to other visitors.

Visitors, however, rarely try to improve a committee's plan or have patience to continue to submit questions, if, in return, they receive no helpful suggestions. So it is to members of committees that we naturally look for a change in methods. One member can accomplish much by patient effort,—by bringing up problems about his own families, by keeping watch of other visitors, and bringing before the Committee questions which these visitors have not asked, because they were too shy or too ignorant of the relations of their work. And, when the right time comes, he will find it easy to introduce a system which shall make sure that no visitor or family is neglected. An earnest member of the Committee who is willing to sow seed through one year is pretty sure to reap a harvest of more visitors and better work the next.

Given a committee very much in earnest, whom do they want for visitors? At first, those who would pretty surely work well together; after that, persons of as varied training and interests as possible,—men and women both. Don't shut the door against the men by

calling yourselves "women visitors." If young women offer, don't refuse them, but set them to work. At least, let them help at the office, and be sent on special errands to the better sort of dwellings, to the hospitals, etc., till the Committee can judge whether they have the character and courage to fit them for visiting; for it is character, and not age, which decides the question. It is a pity to lose the power of youth. It is only to the young girl that the sad old woman says: "You bring sunshine into my life. You make me think of what I used to be."

Having got the first visitors, how shall we keep them? Visitors feel the attitude of the Conference and Committee toward them, and are attracted or repelled by it. I have seen visitors' meetings where the Committee only, and not the visitors, had votes; others where the visitors never saw the directors of the district, although bound by their decisions. I did not wonder that the number of visitors was small.

The true idea, as it seems to me, is that all form one company of workers, who meet to be of service to each other, the Committee being those fitted by experience, leisure, or administrative ability to render the greatest help to other visitors. Their power of leadership will grow out of their helpfulness, and does not inhere in their position.*

It creates sympathy if the members of the Committee are themselves visitors. There are some wise exceptions to this rule; but no amount of desultory work—taking up cases in emergencies, etc.—can fit one as well for committee work as continued visiting to one or two families, learning to know them thoroughly and standing by them to the end. If one can add the emergency work, it is better, but by no means omit the continuous visiting.

The visitor should be helped to feel his double responsibility,—toward the poor family because it needs his thought and interest, and toward the Conference because he is acting in its behalf.

Another point in keeping visitors is to prevent their getting into difficulties. One of the most dangerous, because it is so subtle, is the giving of relief. The visitor is likely, if he gives aid himself, to be satisfied with that, and lose sight of the real aim of his work. The poor family catches its cue from him,—looks upon him merely as an alms-giver; and very soon he gives up in disgust, and leaves the work, with an opinion of the poor which they do not deserve; he

*Occasional joint Conferences of District Committees broaden their views. The history of a typical case, with pauses for discussion where a decision was needed, has proved a helpful basis for such meetings.

drew out the lower qualities in them. Do not let the visitor give from his own pocket to his own family, but get relief, if really necessary and wise, or show him how to get it, and make sure that it is prompt and adequate, and accomplishes something more than temporary relief from suffering. After several years, when a friendship is fully established, help may perhaps come from the visitor as from a personal friend; but, even then, be cautious.

Sometimes, a visitor will ask approval and help in an unwise plan for his family. When he cannot be convinced that some other method is better, and no serious harm to the family is likely to follow, he may well be allowed to try his own way, with the understanding that it is an experiment to be watched. But there is danger in weak concession to a visitor, simply to keep and encourage him. In undertaking co-operative work, he of course agrees to abide by the decision of the majority; and he will respect the work more, if we are true to our convictions. Indeed, a visitor often realizes that his own nearness to the family sometimes warps his judgment.

The visitor hopes to form a permanent relation; but if, at first, there is some obvious charity work to be done, such as obtaining relief, attention in sickness, getting work, etc., there is danger of his making no tie with the family which will hold when that emergency is passed. The Committee can prevent this by suggesting some simple ways of discovering their tastes,—as by the gift of a flower, the loan of a book, playing games with the children, reading to the old father, an arrangement for some slight pleasure with the visitor, which will let them see that he really cares for them as persons, and not merely as sick or poor. When there is no emergency at first, the Committee can suggest ways of finding the slight excuse which each of the first five or six visits needs. When one must wait a long time before opportunity comes for some most needed action, suggestions of other sorts of work to be done for the family will keep the visitor from growing impatient or down-hearted. It may seem an odd way to help a visitor, but it sometimes works in such a time of waiting,—to persuade him to take another family, where something may be accomplished more quickly. And, in general, it seems wise to give a new visitor two families. The contrast between them helps to keep him interested in both.

Volunteers sometimes lose patience, because other duties prevent their doing all they wish for their poor friends. The committee can help by finding another visitor to aid in an emergency, by asking a gentleman to help a lady in some one part of the work, or *vice versa*,

But here, again, be careful not to go too far in relieving the visitor's responsibility for the family, else he loses his interest, and you lose him.

The meetings of visitors, rightly managed, are a great power of education. In these meetings and in talking or writing to visitors, details should not be allowed to hide the principles on which the work rests. The principles should be discussed and the reasons for them given again and again, as new visitors come to the meetings or as new knowledge invites a change of policy.

If visitors report to the agent during the week, the Committee can consider all the cases beforehand, and bring to the Conference those only which are of chief importance for such a meeting, the visitor, of course, being drawn into the discussion. A general opportunity at the beginning and end of the meeting for any visitor to bring up a special case does away with the necessity of calling on each visitor in turn,—a practice which crowds the business and drives away visitors who will not speak before others.

If, as each case is brought up, no matter how well known to constant attendants, some member of the Committee interrupts to say, "This is a widow, struggling with the care of five children, the youngest a cripple," etc., the problem will be much clearer to all present, and the discussion, therefore, more likely to bring out suggestions. Otherwise, the visitor gives but a divided attention to stories whose full purport he does not comprehend, and is apt to leave as soon as his own problem has been as vaguely discussed.

The Committee should make the visitor feel that, if he is doing his own work with reasonable thoroughness, even for but one or two families, it means that he knows eight or ten individual lives, and many questions will arise in the Conference where his counsel will be of value. Once make the visitor feel that he is really of use to others, and he is pretty sure to keep coming, if he can.

Let the aim be to make the meetings helpful, and they will be interesting. When the attempt is primarily to make them "interesting," they are apt to degenerate into "entertaining"; and the earnest workers would rather spend their time in visiting.

But committees will ask, "Cannot our paid agent look after the visitors?" An agent alone cannot do much: he can *help* a great deal. An agent forms a fixed centre for the work, knows the families,—as he has made the first investigation,—is familiar with the policy of the Committee, and at hand for all emergencies and for consultation

with the individual visitor about details. He can persuade those who refer families to become visitors, but otherwise he has little opportunity for securing new workers. Once when I asked an agent about this, she answered, "No: I never got a visitor for our Committee, but I never lost them one."

If the agent notices in his first visit the little things, especially the good points which the visitor can use in forming an acquaintance, and tries to get an idea of the family as people, and not merely as "a case," he will be able, even if he never sees the family again, to talk them over with the visitor in a familiar way, which is not possible to any great extent in the Conference meetings. A prompt investigation outside of the home and careful keeping of records make the agent helpful to the visitors. He can show the volunteer clerks, who come for an hour or two a week, the use of the work they do, and inspire in them an interest in visiting. When they become visitors, he must have patience to teach the clerical work to new volunteers. He can discourage the poor people from coming to his office except in emergencies, going to them himself or sending the visitor; thus he makes his relation to them appear more friendly than official, while his office hours are reserved for consultations with the visitors.* He can be careful to represent the Committee faithfully to the visitors, and the visitors to the Committee. He can learn from each visitor something that will help him to make suggestions to others. He can study the visitors, and suggest from time to time one who might be added to the Committee. He can propose new methods of work, and especially he can be patient with the visitors' shortcomings. The results will repay him; for, although there may be more mistakes at first than if he worked alone, he can reach through the visitors a much larger number of people, and exercise a more constant influence over them, and there will be more successes in the end.

In the larger societies there is another paid worker,—the General Secretary,—who can also help on this work of friendly visiting. He has a view of the whole field, and can learn things from one district which will help another.

*In one district in Boston during the last year, a "daily committee" of one member of the executive committee and one visitor has met at the office during the office hours (11 to 1), helping the agent to decide what shall be done in emergencies, talking with the visitors who call, and considering all matters which have come up since the previous day. The more important are put aside, if possible, and marked to come up at the full committee or conference. The assignments to certain days bring the same persons to the office about once a fortnight. The experiment has so far proved successful, insuring prompt action, calling out new powers in visitors, etc. Next season, other conferences may try it; and it remains to be seen whether it will work as well under their conditions.

The General Secretary gets the drift of the work of a Conference from reading the reports of cases as they are sent to the central office; but we all know it is dangerous to judge by that alone. Good work is sometimes poorly reported. I should advise taking one district at a time, and attending all the meetings for a month or more, to learn just what is being done. This is much more fruitful than attending as many meetings at intervals. If he thinks the Conference needs improvement, let him help it along a little, and then watch it without trying to do the work himself. Discriminating praise and suggestions will help far more than criticism which provides no remedy. If he sees a committee content with routine work, he can look for some one among the visitors who always wants to know the why and wherefore, and, when the right time comes, suggest his election on the Committee, in the hope of stirring them to more thought in their work. Whatever the need and however near at hand the remedy may be, he must bide his time, often making his suggestions through others and waiting for the seed to take root. Forcing the matter would only make it worse.

A general secretary, like members of committees, will do better work if he is a volunteer visitor himself. I can testify that it gives a fresh interest to all one's work. A family that can be visited on the way home does not take too much time, and one need not undertake another till the friendly relation is firmly established and less time is required.

After all, is it worth this trouble to get and keep visitors? I believe it is. Without this personal service, this man to man work, the most generous relief is inadequate, investigation fails to be truly helpful, and co-operation wants the connecting link that shall bring good results out of good intentions. Especially all these things,—relief, investigation, co-operation,—excellent as they are, lack the power and even the opportunity of influencing character.

VI.

African and Indian Races.

OUR DUTY TO THE AFRICAN AND INDIAN RACES.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE.

PHILIP C. GARRETT, CHAIRMAN.

The boasted cordiality with which America has welcomed the oppressed of every land, throwing open to them her gates, and endowing them with citizenship and equal rights, hardly extends to the aborigines on their own soil, nor to the Africans whom we dragged in chains and slavery from their native land. There was originally sufficient reason for this in the fact that they were untutored savages, and certainly to these two races our nation holds a peculiar relation, different from that in which it stands to any others; and to both of them, from the unusual circumstances of their presence in our midst, it owes a tutelary debt, from which nothing can absolve it. With the single exception of the Chinese, indeed, no heathen race has sought these shores in large numbers. The Indian we found here, the African we forced here. A few Mohammedans straggle hither from time to time, but nearly all of the people who have flocked here voluntarily or as refugees from foreign oppression have been Caucasians and Christians, or at least have belonged to Caucasian and Christian nations of the Old World. It would of course be competent for a Christian nation, through its fundamental law, to exclude entirely from the benefits of immigration and citizenship all heathen people. But it is too late to exclude either the African or Indian. As to the Indians, indeed, the only question could be whether, as between them and the whites, the latter have a claim on the soil; and, as to the Africans, we have voluntarily planted and watered them till they number more than one-tenth of the entire population, and this has been their home for two centuries. Yet as both belong to races intellectually inferior, undeveloped, and uncivilized, the United States owe it to themselves and to them,—having,

at the outset of the government, declared all men free and equal, — to spare no sacrifice which may be necessary to fit them for their rightful share in the administration of affairs. The intellectual standard of the nation will be the average of that of its individual citizens; and, while the Indian population is so small as to reduce that standard by an infusion of only one-half of one per cent., the negro reduces it by an infusion of ten per cent. of blood, inferior not in all respects, but intellectually and in point of civilization. How far this inferiority involves a difference of brain capacity, and how far it can be removed, — and, if removable, by how rapid processes, — are questions too subtle and scientific for us to enter upon. We have the evidences all around us of great capacity for improvement in both races. It is by no means certain that this capacity is not much greater than is generally supposed, when placed under favorable conditions and when fostered and stimulated by wise legislation. Nor is it demonstrated that a man, and therefore a nation, is the worse for being ninety per cent. Teuton or Anglo-Saxon and ten per cent. African, or ninety-nine and one-half per cent. Teuton and one-half per cent. North American Indian. We hope it is not too cheerful a view to believe he is *not* the worse; for, as a nation, that is about the proportion of our ancestry, and we are fairly in for it.

Such being the case, there are at least two substantial classes of reasons for making the most of these important elements in our nation's life and for cultivating and civilizing them to the utmost; namely, the humanitarian and the utilitarian, or, in other words, more bluntly, the benevolent and the selfish. To a body like this, the benevolent would have prior place, and the utilitarian secondary. From this benevolent point of view, our obligation to these races is greater than to any others, for the very reason that they cannot protect themselves against powerful rivals and opponents. There are even those who avowedly would exterminate the Indians, and for that matter, if their numbers were not so vast, doubtless the Africans also. It is, perhaps, enough to say of those who hold such ideas that they are inimical, not merely to Christianity and to civilization, but to the human race. Every son of Adam is interested in a humane treatment of all the other sons of Adam. Civilization is relative, anyhow; and the white savages of the bowie-knife, the pistol, and the noose, are so much lower in the scale than the contributors to human progress in science, art, literature, and commerce, that, according to their own reasoning, they themselves ought to be exterminated, no less than the dark-skinned races. But truce with that line of thought! We are thankful to believe that there has been such a positive ad-

vance in humanitarian ideas in the last quarter century that no such consideration, and none but those of kindness to either of these less fortunate portions of our population, would have weight with the bulk of the American people. To us, it is impossible to look for any other view from the followers of Christ—in whom there is “neither Jew nor Greek, neither bond nor free”—than that Christian philanthropy folds in its arms every member of the human family; and among these followers we include all the citizens of a so-called Christian nation, whatever their opinions as to Christian doctrine and as to the Divinity and humanity of the Author of their faith. With him began a reign of peace and good will, of honesty and purity, of self-sacrifice and liberality, upon this earth, which, though far from having reached its perfect consummation, still points and leads humanity constantly in the direction of Divinity.

And now, after dark centuries of doubt, in this rapidly ripening age, Christianity has assuredly passed its days of inflorescence, and has reached the era of fruition, when the corn is in the sheaf, and “the earth shall be full of the knowledge of the Lord, as the waters cover the sea”; and when we should be “like Him” and “see him as he is,”—as the carpenter’s son, although King of kings; as humbly born in a manger, with no place to lay his head; as eating with publicans and sinners, as condescending to the lowliest, and, above all, as recognizing all mankind as his brethren.

There is a subtle sophism in the denial of equality to the African and Indian, which we need not discuss. Enough let it be that the nation accord them an equal chance and a perfect opportunity to prove their fitness to compete with Caucasians; though it would be reasonable to give them odds, and then no charge of injustice could lie at our doors. If, with every chance, some of them fail, it is only what some of us do. If some of them reach the highest places, we must give them credit for equality. If a larger proportion than of Caucasians become hewers of wood and drawers of water, our skirts at least will be clear.

But that interest in them which is denied to humanity is accorded to expediency. Where so large a percentage of the people of the States belongs to these races, it cannot be other than the interest of the country to make them self-dependent, to educate them, to elevate them, and place them on as high a plane as they can be made to attain. As serfs, or hostiles, they are a constant burden; as respectable citizens, an accession to the power and producing capacity of the country. In the labor problem, which is to take a conspicuous place among the issues that agitate the public mind in the

next half-century, these races will form an important factor. On account of an ill-directed outcry against immigration and the facility with which labor becomes capital, the greatest danger which threatens the country in this connection is a dearth of labor. The extravagant hostility manifested on the Pacific Coast to the harmless, docile, and industrious Chinese aggravates this danger; and the same lamentable effect follows a similar antipathy to the Indian and negro. We do not need the millionaire: we greatly need the masses of wage-earners; and it is of the utmost importance that we treat the seven millions of Africa's children as well as the quarter million of Indians chivalrously, and offer them an even chance in the race of life. No greater evil can be done in this direction than to stimulate the old race prejudice by race laws, such as that recently discussed in a Southern State. The prejudice is deep enough and old enough to take care of itself.

What is needed for these people is to give them the helping hand, educate them, aid them with capital, give them equal rights before the law, fairness in court and out of it, and full citizenship, with all that that implies. Let both races find their own level, with fair play and a good start; and if, after the fairest competition, the level of either race is found to be low, no one can be blamed, nor can they refuse to take the place which God has given them.

Too much coddling is not good for them; and the period of tutelage need not last very long, if generously administered in a spirit of humane liberality. But the interest of the country *does not lie in their alienation*. On the contrary, *it lies, most clearly, in the direction of their perfect assimilation*. The descendants of the North American and African savage races now in our midst should be cultivated by every means in our power into the nearest approach possible to the highest type of American citizenship.

It is time to drop the profitless question whether they can be. They are here. It is the only thing to do. They must needs be.

At all events, our duty is clear. Let America do her part, and leave the rest to that Providence who "made of one blood all the nations of men, for to dwell on all the face of the earth." He "wrought by means since first he made the world"; and among the strange experiences of migration and substitution of races there have been none vaster than this transfer from Africa to America, nor more complete than the displacement of the red man by the white.

When the "Finer with fire" has completed the mysterious processes through which he is passing this nation, who shall tell what the crucible will bring forth?

THE FUTURE OF THE AMERICAN NEGRO.

BY GEN. S. C. ARMSTRONG.

The future of the American negro is, I think, indicated in the present tendency or movement of the race.

Slavery was a forced dead level, which, while it kept millions from rising to a higher plane, at the same time held multitudes up from lower depths, and trained them in the elementary civilization of language, labor, habits, and religion.

By a curious manifestation of the law of compensation, the blacks were, in the main, gainers by this terrible experience; and the real loss was on the side of their white owners. Thus, the movement of the race was progressive, in spite of the system which held them as chattels and imprisoned those who would have helped them by education.

But emancipation meant the most tremendous social upheaval that the world has ever seen. The dead level broke up, and every day since has seen changes in the direction of progress. Broadly classified, there are a large number who are acquiring property and education, and coming steadily to the front in farming, cotton-raising, and in the lumber, iron, railroad, and general business of the South. In this generation, they of course take secondary places; but, in the next, preparation and opportunity will push them well forward. This class constitutes perhaps one-third of the colored people. The other two-thirds are living from hand to mouth, taking life easily, working when they must, producing in vast quantities cotton and other crops, and almost free from pauperism. Yet, from their lack of ambition and carelessness of the future, they advance slowly, in many cases not at all.

During the time which I spent last winter in the South, I made special effort to form a just idea of this lower class, which occupies chiefly the black belt of South Carolina, Georgia, Mississippi, and Louisiana.

Common talk, random and unthinking here as elsewhere, is all against them; but I found some Southern men of high position and responsibility who approached the subject intelligently, and expressed their belief in the gradual improvement of even this lowest

class of negroes. There are unmistakably certain special dangers which threaten them, and which they, unassisted, can hardly avoid. The majority of them are under the tyranny of the credit system, ground between the upper and nether millstones of their own ignorance and weakness, and the horde of unscrupulous traders who are ready at every turn to take advantage of them. This is appreciated, I believe, by all thinking people, and has already been brought out by the press, so that I hardly need here to suggest that the only remedy is in the slow progress of education.

Strong drink is, however, the worst foe of the freedmen of our country. There are not many hopeless drunkards; but there is a vast deal of "guzzling," which drains their pockets and keeps them down. The roots of this go deep, and the evidences of it are pretty much the same with the black man as with the white.

From various sources, I have the impression that there is a gradual improvement in respect to honesty. Stock of all kinds is more secure than it was ten years ago, and this is a fact of primary importance. The hope of the Southern country lies largely in its capacity to raise its own meats. They must produce their own indispensable "pork," instead of buying it from the North-west; and this, in spite of many difficulties, can be done. When they learn that grass is greater than cotton, they will soon have a "new South." They are slowly adopting these ideas, and institutions which push them are a blessing; for practical education is their great need. The present movement in this direction is slow, but sound. It is helped by the steady breaking up of old estates, which, it is said, is increasing the total number of Southern farms by about one-fourth, every ten years. The black man gets his share of this; and every year, as prejudice decreases, his share becomes larger. The craving of the negro for land and education is his redeeming trait. It is his *In hoc vinces*, and, I think, justifies the conviction that his future is to be one of steady betterment.

Law and order make for progress more than we may imagine.

When crime receives its just punishment and the way of the loafer grows hard, then the majority must work honestly for a living; and, in spite of weak spots, justice is generally dispensed in the South. There is through the courts a quiet, effective pressure on the negro to better ways, and this counts for much.

On the other hand, "politics" as an influence is to be feared. The Kuklux and the shot-gun *régime* were not so bad for the black man as the purchase of his vote and the opening of whiskey barrels

on election days. The outrages of the former did not touch his self-respect or lower him in the eyes of others; while the seeming friendliness of the latter is a terrible snare, pulling down his manhood and creating a national danger. There is no such field for designing men as the South affords, and the number and condition of the negroes give promise that the worst is yet to come. Our main hope lies in the school system, and this in spite of a frequently perverted use of education. But, after all, being a citizen and a voter has, more than anything else, made the negro a man. The recognition of his manhood has done much to create it. Political power is a two-edged sword, which may cut both ways, and do as much harm as good. In the main, it has, I believe, been the chief developing force in the progress of the race. It is, however, probable that this would not have been so, had it not been for the support of a surrounding white civilization, which, though not always kind, has prevented the evils which would have resulted from an unrestricted black vote.

On the whole, the condition of the American negro seems to me hopeful. Nowhere but in Louisiana do they as a class seem to be retrograding, and even there several of the best governed parishes are controlled by black votes. Good government, which is the first condition of progress, they generally have, with the additional safeguard and stimulus of a well-established but still very imperfect school system.

What will the future be?

I answer, "Development on the line of their present tendency, which I believe to be generally healthful and hopeful."

Experience with the negro teaches us the lesson that contact with a superior race on equal terms is in itself an education.

We shall find it so with the Indian. But it must be remembered that such contact brings evil as well as good, and necessitates a wise direction of these mixed forces. The surroundings of the ex-slave are far more sympathetic and helpful than those of our Western wards, whose large possessions and resultant relations to the neighboring country have created many complicated questions. The war, with its terrible possibilities, has resulted in peace and good will among all our people; while a hundred years of well-meaning policy toward Indians have just brought us to a measure which recognizes their manhood.

Unquestionably, our country stands in a providential relation to many branches of the human family; but to none is it brought in so close and vital relation as to the negro and the Indian.

Our duty toward these two is, it seems to me : first, to study and make thoroughly known their condition, their needs, and our obligations to them ; second, to press upon the government and the people the work which it is so manifestly theirs to do. The former will move only in accordance with the will of the latter, so that it rests finally with the people of this country to decide whether or not these obligations shall be fulfilled.

EDUCATION OF THE AFRICAN RACE.

BY F. B. SANBORN.

My relations with the colored people of America, and my services towards them, such as they were, belong to a period now many years ago ; and, in speaking to-night of the education of the African race, I am obliged to use the observation of others more than my own study of the subject in recent years. I knew them very well before the war, when they had not quite so many friends as now ; but, since then, I have seen less of them than many in this audience, and much less than Gen. Armstrong. On the general subject of educating the African race, we are too apt to take short views perhaps. When we recall the whole historical period of this American continent, or of this North American half, we perceive that we have entered on one of the most singular problems that ever was presented to mankind. Our own Caucasian race colonized practically an unoccupied continent ; for the American Indians, and those tribes more or less related to them, who had encamped upon it, can hardly be called occupants. It was not theirs, except as a hunting ground. Our race took possession, however, and occupied this immense property ; and then one of the first things we did was to introduce another race, entirely foreign to this hemisphere, and quite unknown to a large portion of the Eastern hemisphere. We forced these Africans to come here, we took them from a state of extreme barbarism, compelled their residence among us, and have continued it until this present time. Now, by this course,—taking an entirely barbarous race and introducing it into the presence of a skilful, energetic, and at least half-civilized race, like our own,—we have been attempting to shorten one of the longest and most difficult problems of the world's history. We have tried to hasten the advancement of a savage race towards civilization ; and, consequently, we have at every step doubled the difficulties

which Nature herself created. If we look at the question in that light, I think we shall be astonished when we see what has been done towards the education of the African race since the close of the Civil War. When we consider only what we expected in 1862, we shall be surprised at our own success. We found at that time the great majority of this race in a servile condition, which, though it was comparatively a mild form of slavery (much milder than existed in Africa), yet was such a state of oppression and degradation that almost any other race of which we have any knowledge in history would have felt justified, and would have been justified in the eyes of the world, in compensating itself for long years of slavery and oppression by rising in revolt against the masters who had enslaved them. One of the most remarkable things in the history of the world is the entire freedom of the African race in America from the sentiment of retaliation. The story of our Civil War shows that vengeance was almost unknown to the African race here, though millions of them possessed ample opportunity for exercising that vice. Thus our first difficulty was overcome. We did not have the horrors of a servile war added to the horrors of a civil war, which were sufficiently great in themselves.

We had this race next thrown instantly into a state of political freedom and of political franchise. They were almost immediately admitted to the suffrage,—and here again we doubled the difficulties that would naturally have come in our way. But for the anomalous position of the South, no man would have thought of granting universal suffrage to the colored people there. That method was forced on us by political necessity, though the calm judgment of almost every friend of the colored man would have been against universal suffrage, except for the fact that it seemed the only hope of the political redemption of the South. We had therefore a servile class, bred to enforced ignorance, a sudden emancipation, a sudden admission to the full franchise. On the part of the South, we had, as we supposed, a bitter feeling against that portion of the country which had conquered. We were, therefore, in a condition as a nation that no other nation had ever seen. The condition of England towards Ireland, of Russia towards Poland, or of most conquered and oppressed countries towards those who had conquered them, seemed mild compared with our condition, North and South. Yet in twenty years since the enfranchisement of the negro we have seen that whole southern region literally free from war, measurably free from tumult and mob violence and lawless outrage,—I say measurably free, be-

cause there is a great deal of wrong recorded in the history of the last twenty years,—but still measurably free. And we have seen this servile, ignorant race possessing itself of land, of knowledge, and quietly assuming its place in our political ocean,—this great sea of political freedom and equality in which we fluctuate. We have seen them reach their place with less harm to themselves, and infinitely less harm to us, than most of us would have considered probable or (many of us) possible twenty years ago.

When we look at the matter in this large way, I think we shall not be very much disturbed at particular instances of injustice and violence on the part of the white race, such as, for instance, the attempted passage of an outrageous law in Georgia, nor by the apparent retrograde movement of a portion of the colored race. It is in the providence of God to carry forward the education and elevation of the whole human race by broad methods; and a broad movement, like the tide of the ocean, pays no particular regard to the eddies and ebbs here and there. This great movement goes on, no matter what may be taking place in some bay or creek or little bend along the coast. To my thinking, the past twenty years are the best evidence that the future of the American negro will be decided in a far easier manner and in a far shorter time than was considered possible when the Civil War ended.

ALLOTMENT OF LAND TO INDIANS.*

BY ALICE CUNNINGHAM FLETCHER.

The Indian question naturally falls under two heads, the land and the man. That is the historical sequence in which the question has come to us. First, we saw the importance of the land. Then we began to see that there was a man in the question. When we came to this continent and met the Indians, it was very little to us who they were. To the civilized nations of Europe, this country was a new one, and consequently ours by the right of discovery. We sat down upon the edges of the continent, and gradually the Indian was pushed back. The English, of all the peoples who came here, were the only people to recognize the right of occupancy by the natives. The Spanish took the lands, and the Indians were hurried off by death or forced into slavery. The French mingled with the natives, entering into trade, moving around about among the tribes, and for

* Given without manuscript and phonographically reported.

a long time made no permanent settlements. But the English came to stay. Consequently, the land was a great deal to them; and it is to their credit that they recognized the Indian's right of occupancy. The land was either purchased by some form or else it was strictly a matter of conquest, by fighting for it.

Near the beginning of this century, the line that marked the white man's country was drawn from the north to the south. Beyond that was the Indian's country. Even the treaty of Greenville, in the early part of the century, drew that line down from the borders of Lake Erie in Ohio, and made a curve to the Atlantic, near Southern Georgia. Beyond that line lay the Indian's country, where the white man went at his own risk; for the Indians were authorized by treaty to deal with white intruders as they pleased. The French, meanwhile, had slipped round back of this line, by way of the lakes, to the Mississippi, and established relations with the tribes of that region.

Trade was the venturesome pioneer: posts were established. Gradually, the government began to treat with the Indian for the land about these posts, so that there were scattered through the Indian country little patches of the white man's land. You can track them still by the treaties through Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. By and by, treaties were negotiated for a right of way, so as to form a road between these different places. Thus, if you will picture to yourself the country at that time, you will see that the traders and their white companions were on reservations, surrounded by the Indians. Gradually, by continued cessions of land, these roadways between the trading-posts grew wider and wider; and the Indian was pushed farther away, so that in time he himself became corralled, and the white people were all about him. Thus the reservation system grew, until to-day, as we look over the map of the United States, we see the colored blotches which mark the places where we have hedged the Indian in.

We have recognized the Indian's right of occupancy, but the right of eminent domain has been always vested in the government. The Indian does not legally own his land. He can only negotiate with the government, and sell to it his right of occupancy; but, if he himself would own the land on which he and his ancestors before him have lived, he must receive a deed from the United States for that land.

The importance to us of the land it is not necessary for me to dwell upon. You all know it, and our country bears the testimony. We have got it from the Indian. He has never been able to stand

out on the land question against us. But it is a singular fact that there is one way in which he has stood out, and at last forced us to stop and think ; and that is by his manhood.

The Indians, when we came here, were not a numerous people. It is very questionable if there were five hundred thousand in the present territory of the United States. They were scattered widely, so that there were stretches of forest and prairie lying between the different tribes. There are a great many groups of Indians, distinguished by their language. In speaking of Indians, we ordinarily lump them as one, calling them native Americans. Yet they are distinct in their language and in many of their customs, and are as radically different one from another as are many of the branches of our own white race.

Along the eastern coast, running up from the lower part of the Potomac toward Labrador, passing through the Canadas and parts of the central States, and stretching west to the mountains, lived the great Algonquin group. Along the northern region, running from the great lakes through New York to the mountains of East Tennessee, dwelt the Iroquois. Further west were the great Siouan or Dakota group. By an agreement between scientific associations the names given to certain tribes, or groups, by the first student become those by which they are thereafter known. Thus, Gallatin was the first to classify certain tribes under the name of the Siouan. Sioux is the last syllable of the Chippewa word Addowissiou, meaning "enemy." It is an unfortunate name. Dakota is a full Indian word, belonging to this family, and means "league." To this family belong the tribes which I have studied most closely. The group numbers fifty thousand, perhaps, and includes the Dakotas, or Sioux, the Omahas, Winnebagoes, Mandans, Crows, Quapaws, Otoes, Osages, Iowas, Missouris, Poncas, and some others. These people occupied this region where we are.

We have been accustomed to talk of the Indian as a savage. Well, if you will take the word for just what it means, that he lived in the woods, then he was a savage. But if you apply to it another interpretation, that a savage is a man without feeling, a wild animal, without any order or regulation in his life, then the use of this word, as applied to the Indian, shows our own ignorance, and does not in the least hurt him. The Indian belongs to a very old race ethnologically, perhaps older than the white race. He has lived, therefore, on this continent as long as we have our historical record, and possibly longer. He is thoroughly organized in his life, in his tribal relation, which we *talk* a great deal about, but very few people really *know*

anything about. It is only within a generation that the study of anthropology has revealed to us the organization of the more primitive races.

The Indian tribes are grouped by the affinity of their language, and there are many distinct stocks. A tribe is a distinct social organization, governed by its own laws, and is by no means a chance matter. Let me tell you about the people from whom the city of Omaha takes its name. It was only in 1855 that they made their first separate treaty with the United States, and ceded this land where your city stands and the region round about you, stretching far to the west. This was their hunting ground. To the north was their village, where their ancestors had lived for more than two hundred years, and how much longer we do not know,—it would be difficult to tell accurately. From that place they have, happily, never been removed; and I consider it a very pleasant omen for this city—a prophecy of its own stability—that it is named for a tribe that has never been driven from its original home. The Omahas ceded this land in 1855, reserving for themselves their old home to the north of you, where they live to-day. That tribe bears an interesting little history in its name for the student of linguistics. The name Omaha means “up the stream,” “against the current,” and is the counterpart to the name Quapaw,—going with the current, or down stream. Quapaw is the name of the tribe that lived on the Arkansas, which in 1825 made its first treaty, ceding its land to the government,—the land where De Soto found them in 1540. The Omahas and the Quapaws can understand one another to-day, although their languages have differentiated into the dialects, showing how slow is the change brought about in a language in three hundred and fifty years. Yet the Omahas cannot in the least understand the language of the Winnebagoes, who chance to be their neighbors, though they belong to the same linguistic group. I mention this to show how long has been their residence, how singular must have been their history, that we can have so many dialects within the same stock, yet so far removed in sound that, save for the careful work of the student, one would not suspect that they were related.

The Omaha tribe, like all the tribes in this country,—and, in giving you this picture of their social organization, I am in a way giving you an outline sketch that will show you the organization of all the other tribes in the United States,—is divided into *gentes*. The Latin word is used because, knowing exactly what a Latin *gens* was, and resembling as it does the Indian tribal unit, it is easy for us to adopt

the word. The ten *gentes* of the tribe camp in a circle, the opening to the east. Each *gens* has its definite place within the circle, and can never change its place. There are five *gentes* to the north and five to the south. The northern half are called the *Instasunda*; the southern half, the *Hungacheynu*.

These two divisions are *fratres*, and are fixed. Each *gens* is again subdivided into *subgentes*. Each *subgens* has its place around the fire or in the council, and it can never camp any otherwhere. When the people moved out on the hunt, it was under strict organization; for the hunt was no random scrabble for game. Every subdivision moved by itself, and camped in its proper order. Each *gens* has its list of names to be given to those born in the *gens*, and these names are not transferable from one *gens* to another. I have every name in the Omaha tribe classified as to *gens* and *subgens*. There is no repetition of the masculine names save in one or two exceptions; and, when you know the full circumstances, they are not exceptions. There are some few repetitions of feminine names, simply because of the relation between the two mythical ancestors of the two *gentes*.

As I have said that there is a definite place for every *gens* in the tribal circle, so within the *gens* there is a definite place for every occupant of the tent. The place for the father is always on the south half, the mother's is to the south of the entrance, the guest's always to the west, and the opening of the tent always to the east. I could go into an Indian camp at night and enter a tent, and tell whom I was touching by the position of the person in the tent. Fixity, ceremony, conventional forms, mark Indian life. Freedom, in the sense which civilization gives, he does not know. Freedom of the individual, such as is our birthright, he acquires by hard struggle and in the slow progress of the race. It is a mistake to suppose that barbarism, or savagery, as we call it, is going back into freedom. It is going back into fixity, as when you turn back in the animal creation, and descend in the scale of development, you find more and more fixity. This fixity enters into everything.

With the Omahas, the *gens* goes with the father: the child belongs to the *gens* of the father. That, however, is an exception to the general Indian descent of this country. Usually, the children belong to the clan of the mother. That is the case in almost all of the Algonquin tribes, those of the Pacific Coast and the Pueblos. It is also the case with some of the tribes that belong to this group. A man cannot marry into his own *gens*. He must marry outside his *gens*, whether it go with the father or mother. Therefore, the family rep-

resents two distinct political organizations of the tribe, that can never coalesce. The child can never inherit from both parents. He is born into the father's *gens* or into his mother's clan, and out of that he cannot move. From this custom and its regulations he can never free himself. All property is individual. It belongs to the individual. It does not belong even to the family. Nothing is joint between the husband and wife, parents and children. It is individual to the last degree. I have found much difficulty in procuring things that belong to children, even those in infancy, because the parents have said, "I do not know that the child is willing." This individuality of property is an important thing to remember. I have failed to find anything communistic in Indian life or property, except as it has been forced upon the Indians by our race. I have been obliged to explain to Indians that the holding of things in common is not the white man's custom.

The Omahas have their villages, with houses made of sods and posts, large circular dwellings. They move out at times on hunts, but return to these villages. They cultivate some soil, raising corn, beans, and pumpkins. All of our Indians, unless it may be some of the Cheyennes that live far out on the plains, have always cultivated these three things; and, in the early days of our own history, they rescued the settlers over and over again by their supplies. De Longueville destroyed something like a hundred and fifty thousand bushels of corn that had been cached by the Senecas. But the Senecas were not specially disturbed, as they said they could get more from their neighbors. The best patches of land were picked out for cultivation, and the women were the cultivators. This did not seem oppressive to them. The woman being the conservator of life, and the Indian man the protector and provider, it was natural that she should cultivate the soil. These little patches which they cultivated remained in the same family as long as they were used. No one ever thought of jumping a claim. Private ownership was respected. So land was not an exception in individual ownership.

It should be remembered that the Indian occupied a country with no animals capable of domestication. Our own history would have been greatly changed if we could not have introduced the animals domesticated by our ancestors in the land of their birth. To domestic animals, civilization owes the heaviest of debts. Their use makes life secure, guarantees a surety of food, and allows the individual to pursue such occupations and lines of thought as shall make progress possible. If we had not been able to bring over the ox, the cow, and the sheep, our fate would have been very different.

Having sketched to you a little of the social organization and the fixity of Indian life, you will readily see that one of the important things to introduce to the Indian is property in its descent; for that they never have had. Nothing descends to the child. He is born into his *gens*, into his clan. He does not even inherit his father's honors; for I speak within reason when I say that heredity, rulership, or right, as we understand it, does not exist, and has not existed, among any Indian people in this country. That some chiefs have been followed by their sons and grandsons is true, but this is not the rule. If a man had a son or grandson that he wished to have succeed him, it was to be done either by political influence or by the ability of the candidate. Certain *gentes* always possessed certain privileges, and the heredity of training helped to keep these customs in force. To introduce the descent of property brings about the organization of the family, as we understand it. You will therefore see that by giving the land to the man individually, deeding it to him, making his children his heirs, and uniting the wife with the husband, you are introducing a radical change. You are striking at right angles across the established tribal relation, and are practically putting an end to it. Our own civilization teaches us that we were obliged to do away the tribal relation, and that it was property that helped us to do it. It was property that established the monogamic marriage: it is property that holds it. I do not ignore the moral question; but I am talking of the practical, legal point of view. You will see, therefore, that you cannot civilize the Indian,—that is, you cannot bring him into line with our civilization,—you cannot Christianize him, until you have run this furrow right across the tribal circle. And land in severalty, as we have proven it in our own race, is the one thing that will do it, is the only path we can open through.

Perhaps, if, as a student, I had merely learned these things from books, and had studied the Indian problem from the outside, I should hardly feel as free to speak to you in as positive a tone as I do to-night. But, as I have been asked to tell you something of my own personal experience, I will do so, in order that you may not think I am saying too much or speaking whereof I do not know.

I am a student of ethnology, and have been for a great many years. I was very much interested in archæology, especially in the archæology of our own country, having been drawn away by my own feeling in this respect from the study of classical and oriental archæology. That drew me into the field of research. I have visited the shell heaps of our coast, assisted at the scientific investigations of some

of our mounds and earthworks, have seen those wonderful remains in the Ohio Valley and in Minnesota and Wisconsin. I have traveled over the country from north to south, from east to west, and thus for a long time continued my work in the archaeological field. But there was something in me that wanted to face the living man. It seemed as though I never could read what lay beyond those strange finger-marks on the old pottery until I could look into the face and know something of the inner life of those who were to-day moulding the pottery, the possible descendants of those people whom we looked upon as long ago lost. So I determined, when the chance should open, that I would go myself and live among the Indians. I laid the plan before my guide, philosopher, and friend, Prof. Putnam, of the Peabody Museum of Harvard University. He said, "An excellent thing to do, Miss Fletcher, but impossible." I talked with the late Hon. Lewis Morgan; and he said: "My dear girl, you cannot do it. It would be a capital thing, but you could not endure the hardships." But there is a little saying about a woman,—“When she will, she will, you may depend on’t”; and that was the case with me. The time came when I received an invitation to visit an Indian family, and I accepted it so quickly that I think I rather surprised my host. As quickly as I could get ready, I started. Before then, my friends gave me an *ante-mortem* banquet; and then, as they said, I took a “header into barbarism.” I burned my ships behind me. I had never camped in any rough way in my life, I had never seen any rough life, I had never mixed with the poorer classes of my own people; and it was a “header,”—there was no doubt about it. But I was there for a purpose. I lived with the Indians in their homes, sleeping in a tent on the ground, month in and month out, in summer and in winter, in sickness and in health, in sorrow and in joy. I have held their little dead babies in my arms, and I have tried to counsel and to comfort those in trouble. I learned to love the Indians, and they loved me. It was very natural that I should become much interested in these people. I tell you the truth: when I went out among the Indians, and was told that I must have letters from the Interior Department, though I knew we had a Secretary of the Interior, who the Indian Commissioner was I did not know. I knew nothing about the Indian Department or its organization. The most I did know was that we had behaved badly to the Indians, and it was from the Indian side that I faced my race and met the Indian question. It was not a pleasant thing to do. I have often said that I learned more of my own race than of the Indian race. But I have stepped

across the race line. I have realized,—and I say it reverently and thankfully,—the brotherhood of man, and that you and I are not a bit better than our red brothers. Finding these people that I could touch and that could touch me, strange as was their life, I was able to think and to feel my way toward seeing what I could do to help them. The Omahas I found sitting with a heavy shadow at every fireside. The Poncas had been driven by force to the Indian Territory, and on their way south had passed near the Omaha reservation; and the Omahas had heard the wailing of the women and the crying of the children. They came home, and looked at the certificates which had been issued to them in 1871, when they had pleaded for titles to their land. And then they learned that these certificates were not worth the paper they were written on, so far as they gave any ownership of land. This shadow was at every fireside. As I sat and talked with them of old customs, and as they told me of old myths, their thoughts would wander; and they would continually ask, "What should *we* do if the soldiers should come and take *us* away?" I remember one man saying, "If they should come, I could do nothing but stand and look at the hills."

I could not believe that the government would break its word so rashly; and I sought the book of treaties, to see the terms between the United States and the Omahas. I found it quite true that these people were entitled to patents. When I found that the Indian story was true, I asked for further information, when I was told by certain officials that women did not know anything about these things. But I thought it was time women did, and so I looked more closely into the treaties and why they were not kept. I made up my mind that there was something that our people never failed to recognize, and that was work. Many of these Indians in good faith had gone out on their little farms, and had broken from five to fifty acres, and had worked. I spent two or three months gathering statistics of what these people had done. There were, if I recollect aright, throughout the whole reservation something like fifteen houses that the government had built of cotton-wood, that cost about seven hundred dollars apiece. All the other houses represented the work of the people. Miserable little things they were, all out of line. But there was the line of endeavor there. Then I found out how many chickens they had, and how they got the little things that they did have; and it was a meagre inventory. But I wrote it all down, such as it was, and drew up a short petition, asking that their farms might be patented to them; for they had practically homesteaded them. The men

signed, a portion of them; and opposite each name I wrote a number, and, when you turned the page, opposite each number was a summary of what the man represented by that number had done. It was in the last days of the year I mailed it, with a very anxious heart, and with the Christian Indians gathering and praying that God would speed the little document that had started across the country; and then we waited, and we waited. It reached Washington. It made a little ripple. It was printed. It turned a paragraph, and that was all. I did not know much about Indian matters, you see, thenadays. And so we waited, the Indians and I, one month, two months. Then they began to ask, "Any words from Washington?" Two months and a half, and they came again, "Any words from Washington?" No. Three months passed. Ten miles they came over the prairie: "Any words from Washington?" No; and the winter was gone. The streams were awaking, and the leaves were coming; and I had to do something. And one day I surprised myself, and I think I surprised the Indians, when I suddenly said, "I am going to Washington, and you will not see me until I have good words to tell you." It was the only time in my life that I had faith. I crossed the continent; and I entered Washington the day after a bill was presented which *proposed the sale of the best part of the Omahas' land*, shutting them off from the railroad and markets, being the first move preparatory to getting them into the Indian Territory! I did not believe that the people of Nebraska wanted the Omahas to be sent to the Indian Territory, and I acted on that belief. I will not tell you of my work in Washington,—how I finally succeeded in getting a hearing, how I went into the homes of the legislators; for I felt that it was a matter that women and children had something to say about, for it was women and children off in Nebraska who had something to say about leaving their homes. After three months' hard work, the bill that was to kill them was put into my hands for amendment; and I amended it off the face of the earth into a new bill. It went through Congress, and was signed by the President on the 7th of August, 1882. It gave the Omahas their lands individually,—one hundred and sixty acres to the head of a family, eighty acres to each orphan and single person over eighteen years of age, forty acres to each child under eighteen years,—the United States to hold the title in trust for the term of twenty-five years, during which period the land is untaxable nor can any contract be legal which touches it. At the end of the trust, the United States agrees to deliver it in fee, free from any encumbrance whatsoever. The people were also placed under the civil and criminal laws of the State.

I was induced to insert a clause that I did not in the least believe in, and that every month since has shown was a mistake; and that was, after the allotting of the land individually, the rest of it should, patented to the tribe, be held for children born during the following twenty-five years. It was a poor piece of work that I was obliged to do in the way of compromise. It shut the people up, and kept out a healthy and proper relation to the white people. In opening up the land, it is an excellent thing for both races to work together.

I did not wait for the bill to be absolutely signed before I came back to Nebraska. I wish you could have been present, and could have seen and heard those Indians. Particularly, I wish you could have heard old Mepe's words of thankfulness. This old woman had buried husband and children, and was the last of her race. She thanked God that the graves of those she loved would be unprofaned, and that she could go to meet them from the land where she had lived and loved them.

A year or more after that, the Secretary of the Interior asked me if I would carry out the provisions of the bill which I had been instrumental in bringing to pass. So I entered upon the first allotment of lands to Indians in severalty, with provisions similar to those of the present severalty bill. The Indians were huddled among the bluffs. They were afraid to move out on the prairie. Their best land lay in the Logan Valley. You have no more charming valley in your State. Not a sod in it was turned. How should I get the people out there? I could not allot land to them by sitting in the agent's office and having my plats before me, and putting them down here and there, like pegs in a machine. I took my Indian matron and clerk, and pitched my tent on the banks of the Logan, and sent word to the Indians that I would not come in. If they wanted to see me, they must come out. Little by little, they began to come out, until at last I had sixty-eight heads of families; and to-day, where three years ago there was not a sod turned, I can show you cultivated farms ranging from fifteen to one hundred and twenty acres each.

I can assure you that the Omahas have had a hard time in reaching this point. They have been misrepresented and preyed upon by those who should have helped them. When their patents were delivered to them according to the tenor of their bill, they were placed under the laws of the State, civil and criminal. That fact weakened the agency. The agent became a figure-head. He was nothing legally, and he retired. Everything dropped to the ground. The Indians were absolutely snapped off the fingers of the government.

You were not there to catch them as they fell; and the result was a great deal of confusion, a vast amount of misrepresentation. The Indians did not know how or what to do, or where they were. They could not help themselves. They were not citizens. But they have struggled on, and I believe that they will come out all right.

Several Omahas are breaking land, and cultivating more this year than ever before. They are trying hard to do their best, but they are very poor. Few of them have horses fit to do ploughing or to break the soil, so they have had to pay for all the breaking that they have had done. One young man came to me last week, who had had thirty acres of his land broken, paying two dollars and a half an acre to a white man to break it. This young fellow does not even own a plough. But he is a pushing fellow, and is determined to get on. He says he shall have a house one of these days, and he will. Five years ago, this young man was dancing and dangling around, doing nothing. It is the feeling of ownership that has started him on.

I stayed one night recently at the house of one of the pupils, whom four years ago I took to Hampton, where I initiated the plan of educating young married couples. The husband did not speak one word of English when I took him East. To-day, he is farming, dealing with white men, owning machines which he rents out to white men. His house was built by a loan made by some ladies in Washington, who have raised a fund in memory of Mrs. Gen. Hawley. It is as neat a house as you will find in the Logan valley, and he expects to pay back one hundred dollars of the loan this year with money earned by himself. I do not mean to say that every Omaha is in this condition. It would be a surprising community, if all were like this. There are plenty of them who are in a miserable, vagabondish condition, who will live and die so. But many are pulling out. Giving land in severalty is not a failure. It is a direct and practical recognition of manhood. But it is not by any means the end of things. The Omahas, by virtue of the provision of the severalty bill signed the 8th of February, 1887, are now citizens. They are part of your Nebraska constituency, belonging in three different counties. And, gentlemen, you who are interested in politics, see that they vote this fall.

EDUCATION FOR THE INDIAN.

BY REV. ROBERT W. HILL, D.D.

About twenty-two years ago, I was out on the Yellowstone for the first time, visiting the agency of the Crow Indians. Looking around, I saw a building, at the door of which was seated a man, smoking a pipe. In front of it were a number of Indian children, having a very good time at play, ragged and almost naked. I said to the man, "What are you doing?" "I am educating the Indians," he replied. I asked this teacher, "Can you speak the Indian language?" "No," he replied. "Can these children understand English?" Again he answered, "No"; and then to my final query, "What do you do?" he frankly replied, "I just draw my salary." A few days ago, I was in the Indian Territory; and I picked up a paper printed in one of the Indian languages. I could not read it; but I said to a gentleman, an Indian, who was standing by me, "What is this?" He said: "That is the official notification of an appropriation of \$60,000 for the building of a school for Indian girls. We want our children educated." There was quite a contrast brought to my mind at once between the two methods adopted by these representatives of different races. I stood among the Choctaws a few days ago, and heard an Indian, well dressed, well educated, with a perfect command of the English language, make a plea in behalf of his race; and his argument for Christian education for his people might be stated briefly thus: "You should do this much for us because of the tie of brotherhood; you should do this much for us because you have taken our land, and we as the conquered people are in your power." As I looked at the flashing eyes and listened to the eloquent words that fell from his lips, I could not for a moment doubt that Christian education was a developing factor in Indian civilization. I knew that if it could produce manhood such as he represented, if it could fill his heart with the thoughts he presented to that assembly, it surely must be a good thing to give to all the others of his people. And so I say that it is essential, if we propose to do our duty to the Indian races, that we give to them the education which is necessary to elevate them to the plane upon which we move. They need education. They are a peculiar people, as you have heard this evening; and yet a people having within themselves all the possibilities of the civilization which we to-day possess. Our forefathers at one time occupied a similar plane to that occupied by them to-day;

and our forefathers, in their successive generations, managed to shake off from themselves the chains which bound them to barbarism, and we have been lifted up to the proud position which we enjoy to-day by the elevating power of Christianity. Give to the Indian the same opportunities which our ancestors enjoyed, the same opportunities for enlightenment, and I have no doubt that in the years to come we shall find them becoming a valuable part of our common people. They need education more than coddling. You who look about upon our Western country, and who listen to the appeals in behalf of the Indians, do not for a moment question that fact. It is self-evident. But especially do they need Christian education to-day, because they are entering now upon a final struggle for existence. They are being surrounded on every side by a higher, stronger power. Civilization is circling round them in every direction; and unless we give them that which they need, to cope with life in its new conditions, they will be crushed out of existence, and in time nothing will remain of the Indian but a tradition.

Now briefly for the methods of education. First, the method must be a just one. We must give to them a sufficient opportunity to possess themselves of our civilization. We must not be niggardly in the appropriations which are made for educating them. These appropriations, even if we give to the Indians what they require, will not be very large, when we consider what we have in return and what we expend in wars.

Second, the methods must be adapted to the different conditions of the various Indian tribes. I remember seeing an Indian, who belonged to a country where there is but half a mile of wagon road, who was taught the trade of wagon-making. That was a waste of time. Another, who was taught to decorate pottery, was going to a place where paint itself had perhaps hardly ever been used. Surely, a method which will not adapt itself to the conditions and environment of the Indian is a failure. We must, then, have such a method as will recognize the different conditions into which the Indian is to be sent upon his return from training. We must educate the head. We must give to him knowledge which he can assimilate, if we would teach him how to succeed in the struggle for existence. We must, also, educate the hands, so that he can make use of the tools which civilization will place within his reach. And, above all, we must educate the heart. We must teach him the brotherhood of man, and strive to make him forget the strifes and the jealousies which have darkened his past history. We must make him under-

stand the dignity of labor, and that no man degrades himself who by the sweat of his brow earns his daily bread.

The results will be the lengthening of a racial life which is now threatened with extinction, a civilization such as ours for the Indian tribes, and the addition of a valuable element to the national force. Go to-day to the Indian Territory, and see what civilization is accomplishing. Go among the Cherokees, and many of them can talk intelligently with you upon the subjects which interest you most in this Conference. You will find them successful managers of farms, carrying on business by methods which you have found most conducive to prosperity. The other night, in Vineta, I looked at a row of brick stores, and saw the names upon them, and found that the business is almost entirely carried on by Indians, whose stores and dwellings would do no discredit to a city like Omaha. Give these Indians a Christian education, and you will find, when this has been done, it will develop a reacting influence for good upon ourselves,—an influence which we need to have strengthened in behalf of humanity. By and by will come the conviction, through this course, that much good has been accomplished. And perhaps it may happen that, in the day of extremity for unfortunate white people, some of this seed of kindness, that to some apparently is wasted, will, when garnered by the red man, be returned to supply our own needs. He who helps the helpless, and he who puts forth his hand to lift up his fellows, does no ignoble work, but will in due time find the blessed effects in his own heart. Christian education for the Indian—education for his head, his hand, his heart—will help us solve this Indian problem.

THE MISSION INDIANS OF CALIFORNIA.

BY MRS. O. J. HILES.

When the cruel wrongs inflicted on the Ponca tribe of Indians by their enforced removal, under particularly distressing circumstances, from their homes in Dakota to the Indian Territory, and their consequent sufferings, had become known to the people of the Eastern and Middle States, and while the hearts and minds of the people were thrilling with a sense of the wrong and devising means for its redress, Helen Jackson visited Boston, and heard the story as related by the Ponca chiefs. With the characteristic force of her nature, she repelled the accusations made against the government and its agents; and, with a corresponding force, she set herself to the task of examining records and documents bearing on the relations of the United States Government to the Indians from the settlement of the country by the whites. The result of her study was embodied in her book, *A Century of Dishonor*, published in 1881. She wrote with the ardor of a woman who believed that the best interests of the world are held in the custody of women; and the result of her study was a terse, clear, vivid, and most disheartening account of a century of governmental failures in its struggles with a subjugated people. In January, 1883, Mrs. Jackson and Abbott Kinney, Esq., were appointed special agents by the Interior Department to examine and report on the condition and needs of the mission Indians of California. This report was forwarded in July, 1883, to the Commissioner of Indian Affairs. It was a comprehensive statement of the situation and condition of the tribes which had been Christianized in the missions, their legal rights to the lands on which they had lived, and their present needs. It bore no evidence to the tumult of feeling that was surging in the heart of Mrs. Jackson, nor to the painful sympathy which, aroused by the knowledge of the sufferings of the Indians east of the Rocky Mountains, had culminated here in a distress so acute as to undermine her health and hasten her death. But she lived to give to the world *Ramona*, a truthful picture of the sufferings of a gentle and peaceable people.

In 1767, Carlos III., King of Spain, ordered the Jesuits expelled from California, and granted their missions and property to the Franciscan order. The first Franciscan mission was founded in 1769 at San Diego. Within the next fifty years, on the coast between San Diego and Sonoma, twenty-seven missions were established; and

thirty thousand Indian neophytes were gathered into their folds. The missions had grown very rich in orchards and herds, and the value of their lands could scarcely have been computed. They had built churches, established various in-door and out-door industries, "were like Manchester and Lowell on a small scale." The Indians were industrious, generally peaceable, and even enthusiastic in their new relations. They did all the work necessary in large communities, filled all the laborious occupations known to civilized society. They were taught by the good Fathers the simplest and highest truth, — that God is love; and they learned to love him in return.

I wish to speak concisely of the tenure, with a fourfold legal sanction, that these Indians had of their lands, of their dispossession, and of the disastrous results that followed their continual removals. The first holding was legal, but not necessarily a permanent right; nor was it a right which could be conveyed. Under the old Spanish law, if a man settled upon land, it was virtually his so long as he cultivated it thriftily, and kept in order whatever buildings he might have erected thereon. No one can claim that, under the missions, this had not been done. Consequently, their first holding was established.

But the Spanish king, fearing for the future welfare of these Indian neophytes, provided further for them by an edict which declared: "After distributing among the Indians whatever they may justly want to cultivate, sow, and raise cattle, confirming to them what they now hold, and granting what they may want besides, all the remaining land may be reserved to us [the king] clear of any encumbrance, for the purpose of being disposed of according to our pleasure." Lands could not be granted without notice to the Indians, securing their share. Permits of settlement to retired soldiers will be found with the clause, "without prejudice to the Indians." (Capt. Willson's Report.) The Spanish colonization plan had contemplated the conversion of the mission establishments into *pueblos* as soon as the Indians should become capable of managing their own affairs. In pursuance of this policy, Mexico passed in 1834 — California being then under Mexican rule — the Secularization Act, which provided "that the Indians should have assigned to them cattle, horses, and sheep from the mission lands, and lands for cultivation." These were to be set apart for them, both in severalty, as heads of families, and in common for school and other purposes. But these wise and humane provisions were well-nigh disregarded. They were deprived of much of their land and of nearly all of their privileges. Laws

were passed subjecting them to the most humiliating indignities. In most cases, their rights to their lands having been ignored, they were forced to labor like slaves. In many instances, they were hired in gangs to cruel masters. All Indians found without passes, either from an *alcáide* or from their "masters," were to be treated as enemies.

This was the condition of these inoffensive people, when by the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo they were transferred to the governance of the United States. In 1851, March 3, Congress passed an act entitled "An Act to ascertain and settle the private land claims in California." By that statute, it was enacted "that the commission should report the tenure by which the mission lands are held; and those held by civilized Indians; and those cultivated by Pueblos or Rancheros Indians" (U. S. Statutes at Large, vol. ix., p. 634). Capt. B. D. Willson, in a Report to the Interior Department made in 1852, pointed clearly to the forcible laws of Spain, and to the similar Mexican laws, which secured to the Indians their cultivated lands. And, in relation to these laws, the words of the Supreme Court of the United States are: "There can be no doubt, then, that under the Spanish laws these Indians of whom we treat have a right to their villages and pasture lands, to the extent of their wants, by a perpetual right of possession; a possession considered with reference to Indian habits and modes of life" (Peters, U. S. Reports, p. 711). And Messrs. Brunson and Wells, attorneys at law at Los Angeles, in 1883, gave as their opinion "that, if conclusive evidence can be furnished, proving that these Indians were in possession of these lands at the time these grants were made by the Mexican authorities, that they continued in possession, and were in possession at the date of the treaty, and have since continued in possession, the law will entitle them to hold such land *against all persons claiming under the patent.*" Referring to the laws of Mexico, which sanctioned and held in force the Spanish laws, they stated: "If such lands were granted by a Mexican official, and the authorities omitted to recite the limitations required by law (which secured to the Indians their lands) and reserve from the operation such lands as the law conditioned could not be conveyed, such a grant could not take it out of the operation of the law. The courts cannot shield those claiming under such title from the consequence of ignorance, or arbitrary assumption of power." (Mrs. Jackson's Report.) Having secured this legal opinion, Mrs. Jackson says, "For those whose villages are now within the boundaries of confirmed grants, the government has to

choose between two courses of action,—either to remove them and make other provision for them or to uphold and defend their right to remain where they are. In support of the latter course, we believe a strong case could be made out."

When, by the United States, reservations were established, it was intended that villages then occupied by Indians should be included within reservation limits. But the lines were fixed by interested parties, or else they were guessed at; and the villages were left mostly outside the lines. When a real survey was made, "the surveyor marked in color, showing what tracts would include the villages; but, so far as we could learn, no action has been taken in regard to these additions" (Report of Mrs. Jackson and McKinney). On every reservation, excepting very small ones, whites have settled, often driving the Indians from their cultivated fields by showing a patent for the land; suing them for trespass, should their cattle stray into their unenclosed grain, and obtaining redress by keeping the cattle; appropriating the water privileges; and finally have succeeded in obtaining, if not the whole, at least the most valuable portion of the reservations. Land syndicates not only have secured patents to lands on the reservations, but have purchased large tracts on which Indians have been settled under the grants; and in most instances the Indians have been forced to leave. If they have formed little settlements, they have in turn been driven from them until they are disheartened and discouraged. They have tried in vain to appeal to the government for land for homes of which they could not be dispossessed.

In the spring of 1886, I visited one reservation on which a company of Eastern capitalists had settled and made extensive improvements. In a long conversation held with the president and superintendent of the company, I found they laid far greater stress on their ability to dispossess the Indians than on the validity of their own claim. The courts in California had decided against their claim, and in favor of the Indians; the Land Commissioner at Washington had supported the decision of the courts; and at that time it rested with the Secretary of the Interior. Assured, officially, that these Indians were destitute, homeless, and landless, I went to Washington, and presented the case anew to the Interior Department. Finding my representation to be correct, it was placed as "Special" on the calendar. "This," said the Secretary, "will bring it up for adjudication in about eight months."

I presented to Commissioner Atkins at the same time the case of an Indian from whom a white man had rented land one year, then

had claimed it under a patent, refusing to leave; and because the Indian did not remove his sheep (three hundred in number) had driven them among his own flock and kept them. This case had been decided by the courts in favor of the Indian. But the Indian had no friends, and the white man retained possession. The Commissioner was well acquainted with the case, and ordered that it be attended to. But there is much work to be done in Washington; and the white man still holds both sheep and land, so far as I have been able to ascertain. In the settlement on the reservation the church spires still point toward a just heaven, and the Indians still starve on the desert. I cite these, not as isolated, but as illustrative cases.

What can the people of the United States do for these Indians? They can instruct their representatives to have them protected on their reservations; they can employ an attorney to contest the validity of their claims under the "grants," both for those who have been removed and for the few who are yet in homes thereon, and who will be wholly unable to protect themselves when their turn shall come to be ordered away.

VII.

Immigration.

ALIEN PAUPERS AND CRIMINALS.

REPORT OF THE STANDING COMMITTEE ON ALIEN PAUPERS AND CRIMINALS.

[This report was prepared by Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, Chairman, and concurred in by Rev. M. McG. Dana, D.D., F. B. Sanborn, and Philip C. Garrett, members of the Committee present.]

The Standing Committee on Alien Paupers and Criminals, by its members present, all of its members having been communicated with, respectfully submit to the Conference the following report:—

The subject of immigration, and incidentally that of the influx and shipment of alien paupers and criminals to the United States, have already attracted the attention of the Conference, and been considered and discussed in nearly all of its sessions, beginning with that held at Detroit in 1875. A paper upon the subject, showing the operations and workings of the law of Congress of 1882 regulating immigration, pointing out its defects and suggesting amendment, was prepared and read by Dr. Hoyt, chairman of the Committee on Immigration, at the Conference held at Washington in 1885; and the matter was again presented to the Conference, in the report of the Standing Committee on Immigration and Migration, at its session held at St. Paul in 1886. An extended paper in regard to migration and immigration, historically, socially, and financially considered, setting forth the principles which should govern the public treatment of immigration, whether by nations or States, was also prepared and read by Mr. Sanborn, of the Committee, at the St. Paul Conference. The discussions following these papers and reports have usually been earnest and animated, evincing great interest in the questions concerned, not only on the part of the Conference, but also by the general public, reached through its published Proceedings.

Since the report of the Committee on Immigration and Migration at St. Paul last year, the following statistics have become available:

The number of immigrants arriving in the United States from foreign countries, except from Mexico and the Dominion of Canada, of which no record is authorized by the law of Congress, during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1887, was 484,116, as against 328,895 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1886, it being an increase of 155,221. The recently improved facilities for bringing immigrants by the way of Canada, it is generally thought, have largely increased the number from this source, so that we deem it safe to estimate the entire immigrant arrivals in the United States during the year, in round numbers, at about six hundred thousand. Of those coming through United States ports, 106,559 were from Germany, 74,020 from England and Wales, and 68,130 from Ireland. We have no exact figures regarding the arrivals from other European countries; but Italy, Russia, and Austria are believed to have contributed quite largely, the first two considerably in excess of the average coming from these countries in former years.

The whole number of immigrants arriving in the United States during the first eight years of the present decade has been 4,362,143, or a yearly average of 545,268. The heaviest arrivals were in 1882, when the number reached 788,993; and the lightest in 1886, when they fell off, as before stated, to 328,895. It may be instructive, as well as serve the purposes of this report, to show the condition of some of the countries of Europe in respect to their pauper and insane population, from which the immigration to this country largely comes. According to the latest report, Great Britain has a population of 35,026,108. Its paupers numbered 1,017,000, as follows: in England and Wales, 803,000; in Ireland, 115,000; and in Scotland, 99,000,—or 1 to every 34.5 of its entire population. At the same time, it had 112,700 insane, namely: in England and Wales, 81,600; in Ireland, 19,500; in Scotland, 11,600,—it being an average of 1 to every 310.8 of its population. Germany, with a population of 45,234,061, has 1,310,000 paupers and 108,100 insane, the ratio being 1 pauper to every 34.5 and 1 insane person to every 419 of its inhabitants. Austria-Hungary has a population of 37,786,341. Its paupers number 1,220,000, or 1 to every 30.9; and its insane, 35,000, or 1 to every 1,079 of its people. The population of Italy foots up 28,459,451. Its paupers number 1,365,000, or 1 to every 20.8; while its insane are 44,100, or 1 to every 645 of its inhabitants. From these figures, it is evident that immigration coming from countries so burdened with paupers and insane persons as these must bring with it large numbers of persons who, if not really paupers or insane, are at least on the verge of pau-

perism or insanity, and likely to fall upon the public for support and care immediately upon their arrival. We have been unable to secure any extended data as to criminals in the European institutions for this class; but from the best information at hand, and from the intimate relations of pauperism to crime, we believe their ratio to the population proportionately large.

The latest data respecting the insane paupers and criminals in the United States are in the federal census of 1880. By this census, the population of the United States then was 50,155,783, of which 43,475,840 were native and 6,679,943 foreign born. The number of insane was 92,000, of whom 65,654, or 1 to every 662 of the native population, were of native birth; and 26,346, or 1 to every 254 of the foreign population, were of foreign birth. The number of paupers in poorhouses and almshouses was 67,067, as follows: native born, 44,106, or 1 to every 986 of the native population; foreign born, 22,961, or 1 to every 291 of the foreign population. The criminals then confined in prisons, penitentiaries, workhouses, and jails numbered 59,255, of whom 46,338, or 1 to every 938 of the native population, were of native birth, and 12,917, or 1 to every 518 of the foreign population, of foreign birth. These figures include prisoners in county jails, not convicted, but awaiting trial, and also convict insane and insane persons not charged with crime, who were in prisons, etc., for temporary safe keeping.

Efforts in this country to regulate immigration, and for its protection against the influx and importation of paupers, insane persons, and criminals to its shores, were first made by some of the colonies; and the matter was taken up by several of the States, upon the formation of the Federal Union. As more or less expense occurred in the landing of immigrants and for the care of such as might become sick or disabled during their voyage, New York, Massachusetts, and other States having seaboard ports, established commissions or boards of immigration to supervise their landing, and levied and collected a tax in the form of head-money upon all immigrants arriving at their respective ports, in order to meet such expenses. By the decision of the United States Supreme Court in 1875, the authority of States to impose a head-money tax upon immigrants was declared unconstitutional; and the expenses in connection with immigration and protection against the imposition of foreign criminals, lunatics, and paupers, thus fell entirely upon the States interested. This continued until 1882, when the subject was taken up by Congress; and since then immigration and the protection of the country

against such imposition have been regulated and controlled wholly by federal enactment. The general purport of this act and its methods and operations cannot perhaps be more tersely brought out than by quoting in full from the paper of Dr. Hoyt upon Immigration, read before the National Conference at Washington in 1885 : —

The act of Congress regulating immigration, passed Aug. 3, 1882, provides for a tax of fifty cents each on all foreign passengers, to be levied and paid to the collector of the port at which they shall land, by the vessels bringing them to the United States. The act authorizes the Secretary of the Treasury to enter into contract with such board, commission, or officer, as may be designated by the governor of any State, to take charge of the local affairs of immigration in the ports of such State, and to provide for the support and relief of such immigrants landing therein as may fall into distress or need public aid, to be reimbursed by the collector of the port out of the fund derived from such tax. It is made the duty of such board, commission, or officer, to examine and inquire into the condition of all passengers arriving at such ports; and if, on such examination and inquiry, there shall be found any convict, lunatic, idiot, or any person unable to care for himself or herself, who is likely to become a public charge, the same shall be reported in writing to the collector of such port, and such person shall not be permitted to land, and the expense of his or her return shall be borne by the vessel in which he or she came. Under this act, the Secretary of the Treasury, soon after its passage, entered into contract with the Commissioners of Emigration of New York, with the Boards of Charities of Massachusetts and Pennsylvania, and with various local boards, commissions, and officers of other States; and the examinations, inquiries, landing, relief, and care of all immigrants arriving in the United States since then have devolved upon such local officers, commissions, and boards.

This act was, in several respects, soon found to be defective, both in its letter and method of execution; but it has continued in force since 1882, with little amendment. The Standing Committee on Immigration and Migration briefly pointed out these defects in its report to the Conference of 1886, and we here restate them : —

"1. Its execution depends entirely upon local, State, and city organizations, often of political bias, and likely, therefore, to be influenced more or less by political and local considerations.

"2. The examination of immigrants upon their arrival is generally hurried and superficial.

"3. There is no reciprocal action between the authorities of the various ports for the relief of immigrants falling into distress, or for their return to the countries whence they came, if improperly sent.

"4. The statute prescribes no penalty for its violation in attempts to land the insane, pauper, and criminal classes on our shores, and is not, in fact, very well enforced."

A bill was introduced in the last Congress, Jan. 10, 1887, embodying substantially these recommendations; but, owing to the short session and the great press of business, it failed to become a law. It received considerable attention, however, and seems likely to be fully considered and favorably passed upon by the next Congress. The following is a brief summary of the provisions of this bill in reference to the matters that we have here pointed out as defective in the act of 1882, and also as to its general provisions:—

1. It places the execution of the laws relating to immigrants and the importation of alien or foreign laborers under contract under the general control of the Secretary of the Treasury, and the immediate charge of commissioners appointed by and the collectors of customs districts designated by him, instead of, as at present, under State and local boards, commissions, and officers.

2. It provides adequate penalties to be imposed in the federal courts for bringing to and landing in the United States any alien convict, lunatic, idiot, or other persons liable to become a public charge, and compels their return, at the expense of the ship, vessel, or other transportation line by which they were brought, to the country from which they came; whereas the act of 1882 imposes no penalty for its violation.

3. It also prohibits the landing of any person discharged from a foreign almshouse or house of correction, in order to immigrate to this country; any person who is a citizen of any foreign country, and who, by the present laws of the United States, is interdicted from becoming a naturalized citizen thereof; and any person found to declare the intention of breaking any law of the United States or any law of one of the United States, the landing of which classes is not interdicted by present statute.

4. Its provisions apply to railroad lines and other inland routes of travel, thus affording protection to the United States against the shipment of convicts, lunatics, and other helpless persons, by way of the Canadian and other exposed inland borders; while the present law gives protection only against shipments of these classes by sea-going lines.

5. It authorizes the return to their homes of destitute immigrants who shall have been over six months in the country by the authorities of States, and provides for the reimbursement of the expense

thus incurred out of the "Immigrant Fund" in the United States treasury; whereas, under the present law, the States have no remedy in this direction, except at their own expense.

6. It provides for the certification and registration of all immigrants before leaving their own country by the United States consul of the port from which they shall embark, setting forth that the immigrant is neither a convict, lunatic, nor otherwise enfeebled person, so as likely to become a public charge; while under the present statute there is no restriction whatever in this respect.

There are provisions in this proposed law which would remove many of the defects in the act of 1882. There are other provisions of a more questionable character, which would doubtless meet with opposition from some sections of the country, and perhaps from political parties. The Committee, therefore, without recommending the bill as it stands, would express the opinion that the act of 1882 should be at once amended in such a way as to secure greater efficiency and uniformity of administration, and, if possible, greater stringency in the exclusion of undesirable immigrants.

ALIEN PAUPERS, INSANE, AND CRIMINALS IN NEW YORK.

BY DR. CHARLES S. HOYT.

The whole number of inmates of the poorhouses and almshouses, of New York, including the insane in the asylum departments of New York City, Kings and various other counties, during the year ending Sept. 30, 1886, as reported to the State Board of Charities, was 68,529, of whom 27,075 were native and 41,454 foreign born. Estimating the present population of the State at 6,000,000, as generally accepted, with the relative proportion of native to the foreign born population, as found by the federal census of 1880, its native population now, in round numbers, is 4,560,000, or 76 per cent.; and its foreign population, 1,440,000, or 24 per cent. Upon this basis, the proportion of its native born inhabitants who were in poorhouses and almshouses, as in-door paupers, in 1886, was 1 to every 168 of its native population; while the proportion of those of foreign birth who were in these institutions in the course of the year was 1 to every 35 of its foreign born population, the ratio being nearly five times greater than the ratio in the native population. We have no exact data as to the

nativity of the out-door paupers relieved in the State during the year, but careful observation and the general testimony of the officers charged with the administration of this form of public relief lead to the belief that the disparity in the ratio of foreign born to native paupers of this class to the population was even greater than in that of its in-door paupers.

The number of insane committed to its various State hospitals for acute cases during 1886, as reported by the respective medical superintendents, and coming mainly from the rural counties, was 1,248, of whom 868 were of native and 380 of foreign birth, it being an excess of nearly 42 per cent. in the ratio of the insane in the foreign born population over the ratio of the insane arising from the native population. The ratio of foreign insane, as compared with the ratio of native insane in the asylums of New York City, Kings and other counties with populous centres, is universally conceded to be much greater than in the State hospitals; but, under the present system of reporting by these institutions, extended and exact figures in this respect cannot be given. A recent investigation into the New York City Lunatic Asylum, on Ward's Island, devoted wholly to men, showed that its extremely crowded wards contained 1,916 patients, two-thirds of whom, according to the sworn testimony of the medical superintendent, were of foreign birth, the ratio being more than three times greater than in the insane coming from the native population, or, in nearly exact figures, an excess of 857 patients in the institution in consequence of such undue proportion of foreign born over native insane, arising from the respective foreign and native populations. In the Monroe County lunatic asylum, embracing the city of Rochester, 60 per cent. of its patients last year, according to a recent published address of the county superintendent of the poor, were of foreign birth; while only 27 per cent. of the population of the county were foreign born. The insane in these asylums, as well as in the other city and county asylums referred to, belong almost wholly to the pauper class; and most of them, therefore, become subjects of public relief and care through life, the burden and expense of which, under the settlement laws of the State, are required to be borne by the locality upon which they may chance to fall.

The admissions to the State Asylum for Insane Criminals at Auburn in 1886, according to the report of the medical superintendent, were seventy-five. Of these, forty-eight were native and twenty-seven foreign born. This shows an excess of more than seventy-five per cent. in the ratio of insane criminals of foreign birth committed to

the institution during the year, as compared with the ratio of native born insane criminals coming from the native population.

The Willard Asylum, to Oct. 1, 1886, has received 3,964 chronic insane patients since its opening in 1869, and the Binghamton State Asylum 1,792 since its opening in 1881, making a total of 5,256. Of these, 3,208 were of native and 1,894 of foreign birth; while the birthplaces of 154 have not been ascertained. This gives a proportion of insane of foreign birth in these institutions of nearly 2 to 1, when compared with the proportion of insane in them of native birth arising from the native population. All of these insane have been paupers, chargeable to the respective counties from which they have been sent; and, with but few exceptions, they have been, or are likely to continue, as life dependants upon those counties.

The whole number of convictions in its courts during the year ending Oct. 31, 1886, for all grades of offences, according to the report of the Secretary of State, was 89,601, of whom, proportionately, the foreign born were nearly three times greater than the native born; and the records of its prisons, penitentiaries, workhouses, and jails also show an undue ratio of foreign over native born inmates.

The great disparity in the ratio of foreign born convicts, paupers, and insane in the foreign population of New York, compared with the ratio of the same classes coming from its native born population, as shown by these figures, cannot satisfactorily be accounted for as the legitimate outcome of a voluntary and healthy immigration. In the early years of the country, under a more limited and proper immigration, no such disproportion in the ratio of these classes, in the respective populations of the State, was found to exist. The rapid increase of crime, pauperism, and insanity within its borders began with the great increase of late in immigration, induced by social, political, and other disturbing conditions abroad, and by the increase of facilities conveniently and cheaply to reach our shores. The conviction, therefore, forces itself upon us that New York is being constantly and unduly burdened by the shipment of criminal, pauper, insane, and otherwise enfeebled persons to this country by different countries of Europe, for no other reason than to rid the several communities from which they are sent of their dangerous, troublesome, and expensive subjects. The evidences of this may be found in the British statutes running back for several years, in the records of its many so-called benevolent and immigration aid societies, in the proceedings of the numerous cantons, cities, and boroughs of most of the countries of continental Europe, and in the testimony of the per-

sons thus deported from their homes, the perusal of which, with details regarding individual and collective shipments of these classes, from time to time given to the public of this country by the press, cannot fail to convince even the most sceptical and exacting of their truth.

As a consequence, New York finds itself heavily taxed to meet the constantly and steadily increasing demands for its criminal, insane, vagrant, and pauper classes; and it may be well briefly to sum up its accommodations and expenditures for these purposes.

It has three large State prisons and one large State reformatory prison, with numerous city and county penitentiaries and workhouses, nearly all of which are overflowing with an undue proportion of foreign born convicts; and it has recently provided for an enlarged asylum for insane criminals, an excess of over seventy-five per cent. of those committed to the present asylum last year, as has been shown, coming from the foreign population.

It has four large State hospitals for the acute insane, one of which is being extended for five hundred and one for two hundred and fifty additional patients; and its last legislature provided for a fifth insane hospital, to meet the urgent needs of this class, having an excess, as it appears, of nearly forty-two per cent. in the ratio of foreign over native born patients.

It has two large State asylums for the chronic insane, with nearly three thousand inmates, of whom the ratio of the foreign born, as before stated, is nearly twice as great as that of the native born, most of whom are life dependants.

Its chief city, New York, has over four thousand insane in its asylums, two-thirds of whom at least, according to the best information attainable, were foreign born, and Kings County is burdened with nearly fifteen hundred of this class, with about the same proportion of foreign to native born; and both of these municipalities are called upon to make large additional outlays in lands and buildings, to shelter and provide for their supervision, maintenance, and care.

Its other counties, because of the lack of State accommodations for the insane, have erected asylums and give shelter and care to over two thousand of the chronic class, with an excessive proportion of foreign born; and most of these counties are devising further means to meet the public necessities in this direction.

Its county and city poorhouses and almshouses are among the largest and most commodious in the country; yet most of them are full, and additions are constantly required to serve the needs of the

pauper and dependent classes, nearly five times greater, proportionately, as before appears, in the foreign than in the native population.

Its organized private benevolence is on a scale the most extended and liberal in this country, as will be seen by visits to its numerous general and special hospitals, dispensaries, asylums, and reformatories, representing investments in buildings, endowments, etc., amounting to over \$34,000,000, the greater portion of whose accommodations is devoted to those of foreign birth or to the offspring of foreigners in the first generation born in this country.

Its public officers and courts are yearly burdened with the arrest, trial, and conviction of its criminal, disorderly, and vagrant population, the ratio of which, as already shown, being three times greater in the foreign than in the native population.

Its annual expenditures in charity exceed \$12,000,000, or over \$1,000,000 per month; and, if we add to this the expenditures for its prisons, reformatories, penitentiaries, workhouses, and jails, without considering the cost of the arrest, trial, and conviction of its criminal and disorderly classes, its annual charitable and correctional expenditures will reach nearly, if not quite, \$15,000,000, or full one-fifth of the entire expenditures for these purposes in the United States.

In view of these facts, it is not surprising that New York looks with grave apprehension upon the enormous tide of immigration to the country for the past few years, bringing annually over five hundred thousand foreign born persons to our shores, a large proportion of whom come through its port, bearing upon its resistless flood many of the pauper, insane, criminal, vicious, and dangerous classes, in open hostility to its customs and laws, at war with society and honest labor, and who crowd its poorhouses, almshouses, asylums, prisons, penitentiaries, jails, and other institutions of charity, correction, and reform, and thus impose large public expense for their shelter, supervision, maintenance, and care, the burden of which is heavily felt in its yearly recurring assessments, tax levies and collections. While it is the duty of the State suitably to provide for the insane, infirm, and helpless of its resident population, and properly deal with its criminal, vicious, and depraved classes, it equally becomes its duty to protect itself and society against the shipment of these classes within its borders from other communities and countries. It is in no sense true benevolence for individuals, communities, or the State to assume charitable, criminal, or dangerous burdens legally incumbent upon others able to bear them, but, on the contrary, to insist upon their return to their rightful guardians, and the

enforcement upon them of their proper supervision, maintenance, and care. The failure so to do tends to encourage the shiftless, idle, and vicious classes in constant and aimless changes, stimulates the shipment of charitable burdens from one community to another, engenders social disorder, pauperism, vice, and crime, and at the same time impairs individual responsibility and the responsibilities of communities and the State.

The sentiment that we have heard expressed, that "America is the home of liberty and the refuge of the oppressed of every age and race and clime," if interpreted to include imported European convicts, lunatics, servile laborers, and paupers now being thrust in large numbers upon us, will meet no affirmative response from New York, either from its native or adopted population; but, on the contrary, they accept and adopt the views of one of its distinguished and philanthropic citizens, as expressed in the last Conference:—

It seems to me that some of the great evils that afflict society should be cured at their source. I am inclined to the opinion that if, through oppression or the grinding down of the individual citizen through mismanagement, hopeless burdens are created, as we may see in more than one country in Europe, the burdens should be retained where they originate, that the cause and results of the wrong may be more manifest. For the time being there may be greater suffering; but the voice of humanity will sooner reach the throne of grace, and the fiat of justice will go forth to correct some of these great wrongs which lower the standard of the race.

The following remarks of another distinguished, gifted, and eloquent citizen of New York, in a recent address before the Grand Army of the Republic at Saratoga, reflect generally the views of the people of that State upon the subject:—

The ranks of anarchy and riot number no Americans. The leaders boldly proclaim that they can come here, not to enjoy the blessings of our liberty and to sustain our institutions, but to destroy our government and dethrone our laws, to cut our throats and divide our property. Dissatisfied labor furnishes the opportunity to preach their doctrines, and mobs to try their tactics. Their recruiting officers are active in every city in Europe; and, for once, despotic governments give them accord and assistance in securing and shipping to America the most dangerous elements of their populations. We do not wish to prohibit emigration; but our laws should be rigidly revised, so that we may at least have some voice in the selection of our guests. We cannot afford to become the dumping ground of the world for its vicious, or ignorant, or worthless, or diseased. We will welcome, as always, all patriots fleeing from oppression, all

who will contribute to the strength of government and the development of our resources; and we will freely grant to all who will become citizens equal rights and privileges under the laws and in making them with the soldiers who saved the republic, but no more. There is room in this country for only one flag; and "Old Glory" must head the procession, or it cannot march.

The history of our immigration laws and the nature of the present statutes and regulations affecting immigration, the needs of their revision and amendment, with suggestions and recommendations in relation thereto, have been so fully set forth in the report of the standing committee on alien paupers and criminals, already read before the Conference, that it is unnecessary to refer to them at length. The requirement of duplicate certificates of proper character, and setting forth their ability to provide for themselves, from all immigrants before embarking, from the authorities of the community in which they may reside, to be approved by our consuls and commercial agents abroad, would afford great protection to the country against the shipment of foreign criminals, lunatics, paupers, and numerous other helpless, vicious, and undesirable classes now surging in great numbers to our shores. At least, it would serve to trace the exact source of their shipment to us, and enable the government intelligently to enter its solemn protest against the practice and demand, and, if need be, enforce its discontinuance by appropriate legislation or international treaties. The remedy against existing evils respecting immigration lies wholly in Congress, and to it alone can we look for relief and redress.

There is a strong and growing sentiment, not only in New York, but also in many of the other States, that our naturalization laws need revision and amendment, and that many of the evils resulting from the rapid increase in immigration of late may be thus greatly lessened, if not entirely cured. These laws have been in force over eighty years, with only slight amendments affecting the rights of children of foreign born parents and of aliens serving in and honorably discharged from the United States army and navy; and, though they may have been properly adapted to the times in which they were projected, they can hardly be regarded as adequate to the present condition of the country, with its varied, expanded, and steadily accumulating foreign population. A residence of a foreigner of five years in the United States, and a declaration of his intention three years previous to become a citizen thereof, entitle him, under the statutes, to naturalization in the courts, with all the privileges and

immunities of citizenship and the full governmental protection accorded to citizens of native birth. These laws were framed when immigration to the country was extremely limited; when the time of passage occupied as many weeks as are now required days; when the expense of the voyage was nearly, if not quite, ten times greater than at present; and, consequently, when only the vigorous, industrious, and frugal, with the intention permanently to remain, could afford the outlay, and were willing to accept the privations and hardships incident to the undertaking. The conditions since then, however, have entirely changed. The passage is so inexpensive and quickly and comfortably made that even the indolent and shiftless are tempted to leave their homes. The criminal, vicious, and depraved, and those hostile to the customs and institutions of the country, stimulated by its inviting fields for their unlawful operations, rush in great numbers to our shores; the dependent and the infirm struggle for places in the moving throng, in the hope of permanently enjoying the unrequited benefits of our almshouses, hospitals, and asylums, the extent and comfortable appliances of which have become well and favorably known abroad; and gangs of imported paupers and servile laborers constantly swell the incoming stream, to war upon, cheapen, and derange honest labor, and impair its dignity and character by lowering its standard to their own debased and degraded level.

It would seem clearly our duty, therefore, not only to protect the country, as far as possible, against these undesirable invading hordes, but to guard and protect its citizens, both native and adopted, through whose energy and industry its resources have been developed and brought out, in the maintenance of a higher and more honorable standard of acquired citizenship generally than can, under existing statutes and regulations, be secured.

This can only be accomplished by a careful and thorough revision of our naturalization laws, and their adaptation to existing conditions and to the numbers and character of the immigrants, many of them under the stimulus of European oppression, governmental, so-called benevolent, and individual aid, now surging with resistless force to our shores:—

First.—The period of residence in the country before naturalization should be graduated, with a minimum of five and a maximum of ten or more years, preference being given to the head of a family, who shall maintain it practically intact, and secure to his children of suitable age proper training and culture in the educational institutions of the community in which he may reside.

Second.—Before full investment of citizenship, he should be required to furnish and file satisfactory evidence to the court, either by consular certificate or by other competent authority from his former home abroad, that before leaving his country he was neither a criminal, vagrant, nor pauper, nor in any way physically or mentally disabled so as to prevent his earning a livelihood, and that he was a reputable person in the community in which he resided, and obedient to the laws and customs of the country from which he came; and, also, the testimony of two citizens, one of whom at least should be native, that his conduct since his arrival in the country has been proper and correct, that he is in sympathy with its institutions, and has been obedient to law and order, and that, in their belief, his allegiance will be faithful and permanent.

Third.—At the time of his investment with citizenship, he should be so educated as to be able to read the constitution of the United States, the constitution of the State in which he may reside, and the oath of allegiance he may be called upon to take, and subscribe to the same with his own hand.

Fourth.—The conviction of a felony, or of voluntary, habitual pauperism or vagrancy, or of the barter and sale of his vote, should forfeit his citizenship, leaving him with only alien rights, without forfeiture of property acquired prior to conviction or prejudice of the rights of others in it by descent or otherwise, to be regained only by a further residence in the country equal to the period required for his naturalization, and satisfactory proof to the court of reformed and correct life.

As a nation, we have derived and freely acknowledge great and lasting benefits from immigration; and our fertile, wide, and extended country still offers room and welcome for many more correct and proper immigrants. It is a serious question, however, whether or not we can properly assimilate and convert into good citizenship the large numbers of foreign persons, with their varied habits, customs, and interests, many of them hostile to any form of government, who of late have been, and are now, continually pouring in upon us. We cannot afford to permit our domain to be overrun with the ignorant, pauper, turbulent, criminal, and dangerous classes of Europe, to crowd and antagonize its existing population and lower its standard of virtue and intelligence to their own degraded and debased level, to incite anarchy, disorder, violence, and crime, who can be kept under restraint and order only by constant watchfulness and force, and at great and steadily increasing public expense. It will

be the part of wisdom, therefore, to meet this question while the remedies to these evils are within our reach, by imposing and thoroughly enforcing proper and wholesome restrictions and regulations upon immigration, and by a complete revision and amendment of our naturalization laws, so as to exclude wholly from their benefits these troublesome, disorganizing, expensive, and undesirable classes.

THE PROPER REMEDY FOR DEFECTS IN OUR IMMIGRATION SYSTEM.

BY PHILIP C. GARRETT,

PRESIDENT OF THE PENNSYLVANIA BOARD OF CHARITIES.

Except the North American Indians, some two hundred and fifty thousand in number, we are all either immigrants or of immigrant descent. Immigration has been the making of this country's population. Had not our fathers made Columbia the refuge of the oppressed and invited an exodus to the Western world, and had they not handed down the precious legacy of this same hospitality to their sons, these States would not now enjoy their present wealth and prosperity. What was wise on their part is wise on ours. Not that there should not be prudent restrictions upon this influx, and progressive legislation to regulate it, as experience develops our needs. The spasmodic and often causeless interruptions to business by strikes, the license of anarchists who have not the judgment to discriminate between a land of freedom and a land of despotism, and the prevalence of tramping and vagrancy, spring largely from an ignorant foreign element, of which we would be well rid. But the same and even a greater need than ever before exists for an extensive importation, continually, of workers to replace the thousands who yearly leave the wage-class in a democratic country and become landlords or capitalists. I doubt if any large opposition will be found to this continued importation outside of labor agitators, whose object is to enhance the wages of labor by diminishing the supply of wage-workers. These men, from purely selfish motives, antagonize immigration; and some of them would rather cause the downfall of the republic than assist any movement, however much demanded by the common good, which does not promote their purpose. But as long as the population of this vast domain is not very much greater than that on the small islands of Great Britain, — as long as we need artisans and farmers,

servants and laborers, — while America flourishes and finds employment for all industrious men and women who come to her, so long must we encourage every rill of good blood that flows into the national current.

I have little faith in those statistics which indicate a great increase in crime and pauperism from the time when the existing immigration law went into effect. A disappointment in the amount of their diminutions might occur: an increase is highly improbable. For years past, statistics have pointed to an increase of insanity, pauperism, and local crime. Dr. Howe has recently argued that there is a large increase in the number of blind. My belief is that these apparent indications are the result of greater completeness in the compilation of statistics or the inaccuracy of former tables; in the case of insanity also, due to a growing recognition of the value of medical treatment and a reduction in the number of concealed cases. So also, to a less extent, with crime and pauperism, the increased interest in these subjects and the multiplication of systems of treatment and of institutions produce an apparent increase which is not real. We should therefore receive with caution the improbable conclusion that the excellent provisions of the Immigration Act for preventing the landing of criminals, paupers, and the classes likely to become a charge, have, on the contrary, led to their increase. An eminent statistician, at the last session of this body, led us to the painful conclusion that figures were not to be relied upon, and, when they prove too much, it is a symptom of error.

The act of 1882, designed to regulate immigration and prevent foreign nations from disgorging their worthless and injurious people upon our soil, nearly covers the ground as regards the classes excluded from landing at American ports. All convicts, idiots, insane persons, and, comprehensively, *all who are likely to become a public charge*, are returned to the ports whence they came. I do not know what regulation could be made which would be more inclusive. There are others, persons whose dangerous doctrines render them equally an undesirable element, did the freedom of our institutions permit of the ostracism of any one on account of his opinions, or the dissemination of them, when no personal wrong is done. Except, therefore, certain minor provisions of much utility with which the act could be amended, the objections lie against its administration, and not against the law itself.

New York is by far the largest port of arrival for immigrants; and the attack on the present system emanates chiefly, as I believe, from

that State. My own observation is limited to the small port of Philadelphia, at which arrived in 1886 only one-sixteenth of the number which landed at New York. The kind of people arriving is, however, much the same at the one as at the other, so that the experience at the smaller port is doubtless a fair criterion of that at the larger. Indeed, occasional interchange of correspondence with the New York commissioners has shown that the same questions and the same difficulties present themselves at the two ports. Those who speak of the necessity of a thorough investigation of the case of each immigrant—as though no such investigation was made, or could be made, under the present law—are surely not cognizant of all the facts, and do not realize the nature of the difficulties from personal contact with the subject. That there are differences in the administration of the law at different ports is certainly true, and would be true under any system. Perhaps this is best illustrated by the fact that, in 1886, out of 23,101 arriving at Philadelphia, 185 persons were returned to the ports whence they came; while 997 were returned out of a total of 379,537 arriving in the same year at New York,—being 8 per cent. of the total arrivals in the case of Philadelphia against 2.6 per cent. in that of New York. This would seem to indicate at least a stricter application of the terms of the law in the one case than in the other, if not a wiser. The difficulties are not such as would be surmounted by any remedy which, so far as I know, has yet been proposed. Certainly, they would not by substituting for non-political, philanthropic boards salaried officials of the national government, chosen according to the usual political method,—commonly from among local politicians,—and, therefore, liable to all the objections arising from local prejudices.

I am unable to see what kind of examination upon arrival could be made more thorough than that which has passed under my notice. It must be borne in mind that neither poverty, nor criminality, nor imbecility, nor even insanity, is always visible to the naked eye; that few of the immigrants are known to any one on board the ship prior to their sailing; that they are not anxious to convict themselves of any of these deficiencies and be sent back whence they came; and that it is decidedly to the interest of the carrying company to establish their immunity from either of the causes of proscription, and avoid carrying them back without compensation. The ships which convey immigrants are now usually large transatlantic steamships, and it is important to the interests of commerce that as few obstructions and detentions as possible should be put in the way of rapid

unloading and reloading. It is their custom to accomplish the whole process in a few days ; but an examination of two thousand passengers, which would consume two minutes each, would occupy about seventy hours, or seven days of ten hours.

But suppose a man brings money and has the appearance of ability to work : what examiner would make the diagnosis, in such a case, that he would within the year be upon the hands of some parish in the interior? And yet it is just such cases that are continually turning up, with the outcry against commissioners of immigration that their examinations are too superficial and their interests only those of their own port and State. I know, by close observation and experience, that at one port, at least, these charges are unfounded. Yet I also know that in many cases sickness in a new climate, difficulty in procuring steady employment, accident, and a great variety of causes, unexpectedly throw immigrants upon the public for support after arrival. The rulings of the Treasury Department allow, however, the application of the head money to the relief of such, thus "falling into distress," as the act says, within one year of the time of landing; and this timely aid, with advice and assistance in getting work, very generally sets them on their feet.

An unwarranted clamor is sometimes raised in cases where it is quite unjustified by the facts; and the unthinking or prejudiced jump at the conclusion that some gross carelessness, oversight, or intentional wrong has been perpetrated by the commissioners.

Among the passengers by the steamship "Scandinavian" from Glasgow, in May last, were eighty-three Irish immigrants, who were reported upon arrival to be all evicted tenants, assisted by the British government to emigrate to the States. In consequence of the story, which had got into the public prints, the commissioners detained them all till they could make the most thorough examination possible. They held a regular court of inquiry, placed the head of each family under oath, and cross-questioned him closely. This investigation showed that, while they all came from the same neighborhood, and had been given a passage to America, and money besides, by a certain man, who was the agent either of the government or of a landlord or landlords (they disclaimed knowledge of whom, and very possibly it *was* the British government), yet they were an unusually hearty, healthy, and intelligent lot, had none of them been evicted tenants, none of them been at a paupers' union, and were, almost from beginning to end, thrifty working men and women, out of work through hard times. The fact that they had money was a positive

benefit to the land to which they came ; and where they got it mattered nothing, provided they were neither idiotic, insane, pauper, nor criminal. Yet there was a popular outcry emanating either from demagogues, unthinking men, or labor agitators, against landing these "assisted emigrants." While I do not doubt that there have been numerous cases of both paupers and criminals transported to America by foreign governments in the past, yet under the existing law, as administered at the port with which I am acquainted, very few whom it would be possible to detect elude the vigilance of the examiners, and land in this country. It is difficult, let me repeat, for those who have never attempted the examination of a ship-load of immigrants to realize the difficulties. How, for instance, by any examination or any unerring instinct, could any of us, ignorant of the fact that there was a criminal on board, suspect that a certain one of a thousand passengers under review was a convict? By what subtle law is the line to be drawn between a poor person liable to become a public charge and one who will succeed in supporting himself? What necromancy will reveal which of these able-bodied and hopeful men will fall a prey to disease, accident, and discouragement? Insanity is easier to detect than crime or pauperism, but any one who knows anything of insanity has discovered that many of the most desperate cases are most difficult to detect. In short, it seems doubtful, considering the difficulties, whether any board now administering this law can be charged with gross carelessness or intentional neglect. True, serious errors have been committed by commissioners in construing the spirit and intention of the Immigration Act ; and, indeed, the department at Washington has not been free from such errors. Yet our remedy will not be found in a change of the present system so much as in the removal of incompetent officials and supplementary enactments embodying improvements in the law. The act of 1882 is entitled "An Act to *regulate* Immigration." It is not an act to impede or limit or prevent immigration ; and its terms imply the facilitation of it by helping the distressed, and the rejection only of certain classes of people who would be a burden on the community financially. The simple point is, How are you clearly to distinguish these prohibited classes? Only one of the measures proposed last year commends itself as a thoroughly practical and effective proposition ; that is, to require a consular certificate with each immigrant that he belongs to neither of the proscribed groups, and impose a severe penalty upon ships for every failure to produce the certificate. Even then, the efficiency of the

exclusion will depend on the thoroughness of the consul's investigation; and at large ports of emigration it would throw an amount of labor upon the consul, effectively to perform the duty, which is difficult to conceive, and which would perhaps be as impossible as its perfect performance by the immigration agents.

And, when all is said and done, what is to prevent incessant and enormous leakage along the broad Canadian frontier?

The only other amendment of the present law which seems to me worth much consideration is one enlarging the prohibited class by including those whose avowed opinions are subversive of social order and government and promotive of chaos and anarchy. Liberty of speech and of the press is a glorious doctrine; but has it not its limits? Defence of human rights against oppressive despotism is one thing, but opposition to all government, even free and democratic, is inadmissible; and the man who maintains such opposition thereby outlaws himself from human society. He can live alone, but not as part of a social and political system.

The true and living objection lies, not against the present provisions as to immigration, but against the present facilities for naturalization and franchise. In the early days of the republic, when it was important to build up a strong and self-reliant nation as soon as possible, this ease of conversion into an American citizen was a shrewd and sagacious policy. But that need no longer exists; and it is now in the highest degree impolitic not only to absorb paupers and criminals, but a large part of those who come to our shores, ignorant, if not of everything, at least of our system of government, of our customs, and often of our language, and steeped in ideas of caste and monarchism, or else of chaos and anarchism, to the core. Is it not high time to change these laws, and admit to the elective franchise no man born and educated abroad, or, at least, greatly extend the period required for naturalization? It would be consistent with this to establish an intermediate or probationary stage, say after five years' residence, when a foreigner, declaring his intention of permanently remaining in the country, might be accorded certain privileges of citizens, with protection and limited civil rights.

But let us beware of obstructing the flow of immigration and freedom to employ and be employed in all lawful vocations. For the material prosperity of these States, it were better even that neither paupers nor criminals should be returned to the Old World than that the healthy influx of bone and sinew should be stopped. This would be a disaster of incalculable dimensions, that within one generation would seriously endanger the fabric of our institutions.

REGULATION OF EMIGRATION.*

BY F. B. SANBORN.

I feel great hesitation and modesty in acting as umpire between Dr. Hoyt and Mr. Garrett. I agree, in the main, with both; but, before attempting to reconcile them, I will call the attention of the Conference to the great change which has taken place in public opinion since this question first came before us at Detroit in 1875. That was the year in which the Supreme Court of the United States gave their decision that the States of California and New York were constitutionally incapable of restricting the introduction of immigrants into their ports,—a decision which, I trust, will some day be set aside, because I think the old States' rights doctrine was the true one. However that may be, the decision was made, and is now the law of the land. For seven years,—from 1875 to 1882,—the country was practically without any supervision or any restriction upon the introduction of immigrants, except such as the States could furnish under those laws which the Supreme Court had not declared unconstitutional. When we brought this matter up for discussion in Detroit, the only paper read was by a gentleman from the East (Mr. H. A. Hill, of Boston), who laid down a doctrine much more in favor of the immigrant than Mr. Garrett's now is. He claimed that the government had no right to collect revenue or impose restrictions on this class of persons; that the immigrant must not only be permitted, but invited to come,—invited in all possible ways. At that time, so far as I could judge from the sentiment of the members of the Conference and other persons with whom I talked, this opinion was supported by a majority of the people of the country. Twelve years have passed, and apparently the sentiment of the country has changed to a position very similar to that now taken by Dr. Hoyt. There are many persons—large assemblies, in fact—who go far beyond Dr. Hoyt in desiring immigration to be restricted; and the old cry in favor of unrestricted immigration has almost entirely ceased.

Now, I take it that the true ground is not the extreme position of Mr. Hill at Detroit in 1875, nor one so extreme in the other direction as Dr. Hoyt's. I take it that emigration from Europe to the United States is something that cannot, by legislation, be materially checked. It proceeds from natural causes, and is governed by natural laws. The governments of Europe have not been able to prevent it, and

*An extempore address delivered after the reading of the preceding papers, and phonographically reported.

I imagine that the legislation of America will not be able to prevent it. But the prevention or material checking of immigration is different from its proper supervision, and we are coming to that by practical measures which shall exclude undesirable immigrants without impeding the flow of desirable immigration to this country. I think the measures proposed by Dr. Hoyt, when qualified by the laws of nature, of demand and supply, will produce the result aimed at. I agree with him, therefore, in changing for the present the supervision of immigrants arriving, from the officers of the States to the officers of the United States. At present, under the act of Congress of 1882, while the national government collects the head-money, the States enforce the law; that is, they perform those acts of supervision and investigation which reveal to the national government the necessity for enforcing the law in any particular case. They bring to the notice of the government the persons who require to be removed from the country, and they report the expenditures for which an appropriation from the national revenue is necessary or desirable.

Now, I am quite willing that Congress shall for the present place the whole matter in the hands of federal officers; but I agree to this, not because I believe it the best way or the course ultimately to be taken, but because there is now in New York a very objectionable State board (the Commissioners of Emigration), which has the supervision of immigrants. This board stands in the way of any proper regulation of immigration, and the legislation advocated by Dr. Hoyt will remove the obstacle. The employees of this board at Castle Garden (New York City) are now under investigation by the federal government, and there apparently has been such a series of errors and frauds there that some change must at once be made in that department of the State government of New York. An amendment of the act of 1882, giving control of immigration to federal officers, would dispossess the Emigrant Commissioners of New York, and I believe that is desirable; but when that has been done I believe the national government, from the necessities of the case, will be compelled to intrust the general supervision of immigrants to the officers of the States in whose ports they land or in whose great cities they arrive. Thus, finally, we shall establish a system of immigrant supervision, not confined to the seaports of the country, but extending to all those large cities and distributing centres, in which the immigrants present themselves in great numbers. We shall thus have the opportunity of regulating immigration, not merely at Boston, New York, San Francisco, Philadelphia, and the other sea-

ports, but where it is quite as desirable,— at Omaha, St. Paul, St. Louis, and other inland cities; and I favor the change of law which Dr. Hoyt recommends, because I believe it a necessary step in the gradual legislation which is to produce these changes of system.

There are two points in which Dr. Hoyt and Mr. Garrett agree,— Dr. Hoyt with some fervor and Mr. Garrett in rather a lukewarm way,— the advantage of consular certificates issued on the other side of the ocean. I do not suppose that in one year or in five years this system will reach any great degree of perfection, any more than did the supervision of immigration in five years. We had this system in Boston and New York for forty years, and have gradually ascertained how to accomplish the desired result in the best way. So it will be with consular certificates in Europe. It is not a new measure. It was one of the first things brought to my attention, more than twenty years ago, when I first engaged in charitable work,— this desirability of establishing a consular inquiry on the other side of the Atlantic; and a colleague of mine prepared a bill and submitted it to his congressman twenty years ago, embodying this among other things. But the time then was not ripe for it. Now the time has arrived. The beginning of that policy is already made by our government, and I hope it will be fully carried out. It will act, when so adopted, as a check on immigration, and may result in turning a larger share of the emigration which comes to our continent into other countries than ours. I should not consider that undesirable, for I fancy we are receiving more than our due proportion of the emigration which sets forth from Europe. We can spare a hundred thousand immigrants a year, and still not be reduced to the condition which Mr. Garrett anticipates.

The other point in which both agree is the amendment of the naturalization laws. While this is eminently desirable, yet I confess I do not see how it is to be brought about. The naturalization laws have existed so long in their present forms, and, though often abused, are yet so deeply imbedded in the national and the State franchise, that I should hardly expect to see them greatly modified. If it could be done, it should be; but I think we ought not to wait for any action of that kind. We ought to face the situation as it presents itself. And now that the popular sentiment is turning— wisely, as I believe—in favor of regulating, and to some extent restricting, immigration, we should seize the golden moment, and get what legislation we can from Congress. And we may be sure that by no congressional measure can we defeat the laws of nature or the purposes of Providence.

VIII.

Provision for the Insane.

THE COLONY SYSTEM AS PROPOSED IN MICHIGAN.

BY HENRY M. HURD, M.D., PONTIAC, MICH.

It is generally agreed among philanthropists and alienists that it is no longer essential to the welfare of the chronic insane that all classes be treated in close asylums, erected upon the congregate plan. Violent, destructive, and untidy insane patients of the chronic class undoubtedly receive better care and are rendered more comfortable in a close asylum, with its facilities for classification, than elsewhere. They also produce less demoralization in the community when they have careful professional supervision and skilled attendance than when relegated to county almshouses, or even county asylums, so called. There are, however, certain classes of the chronic insane whose condition, it is generally conceded, can be improved by taking them out of the ordinary asylums, and giving them the surroundings, privileges, and a semblance, at least, of home life. These patients have passed through the active stages of their disease, and are not violent, suicidal, or destructive. Many of them have regained a good degree of physical vigor, and are able to do considerable useful labor, under proper direction and control. They no longer require those appliances of the asylum which were essential to their safety and comfort at one stage of their disease, but are able to live in houses whose appearance and construction suggest the farm-house or a home. Such separation of the quiet, harmless insane from acuter cases is calculated to diminish the first cost of the construction of buildings for their care, and proportionately to decrease the cost of attendance, service, and general support. The question here suggests itself, Why not separate all the chronic from the acute insane, and treat them in distinct asylums, as has been done in New York, Rhode Island, and, to some extent, in Massachusetts and California? One objection to such separation seems to me

justly based on the score of expense. The cost of an asylum for all classes of the chronic insane ought to be nearly as great as the cost of an asylum for the acute classes, and the actual saving in the first cost of construction should differ very little. The expenses of operating an asylum for the chronic insane are proportionately less on account of the benefit derived from the labor of quiet, harmless chronic cases, but proportionately greater, on the other hand, in the asylum for the acute insane, because it has been deprived of the labor of the chronic classes. The expense of removal of a chronic patient from the acute to the chronic asylum is no small item, and should be considered in making the estimate. The most formidable objection to such a separation, however, is that it is difficult, wherever such division exists, to secure the division of a State into asylum districts of the proper size. In great States like New York, Illinois, Michigan, Iowa, Wisconsin, or California, in order to secure a ready accessibility and speedy treatment for recent cases, *every* State asylum should be arranged to receive cases of insanity of recent origin. Otherwise, the delays, expense, and dangers of a transfer to an acute asylum will in too many cases defeat the object sought, namely, the treatment of mental disease in its curative stage. In California, the journey of nearly five hundred miles from the neighborhood of Los Angeles to Stockton or Napa City has proven by experience most prejudicial to prospects of recovery. Yet it should be added in parenthesis that, notwithstanding this, so little has ready access to an asylum been appreciated, that an additional asylum has been erected within fifty miles of San Francisco. It is none the less desirable, however, that districts should be small, and asylums should be accessible for all classes of patients.

The "cottage system" as developed at Kankakee was undoubtedly a step in the right direction for the care of the chronic insane, and would have been pre-eminently successful, had the original plans of its projectors been carried out. As the buildings were originally planned, there was a careful balancing of congregate and detached buildings, and every prospect of a most advantageous system of care. Unfortunately, before the original buildings were completed, the legislature, with an ill-considered economy, increased their capacity by nearly one thousand beds. This necessitated the erection of an undue proportion of cottages, and increased the labor of administration much beyond what was originally intended. The system, however, bids fair to be more generally adopted than any other, and marks an important era in asylum construction and organization.

The system of erecting blocks to accommodate from two hundred to three hundred chronic insane patients in the immediate vicinity of the close asylum has been generally adopted in some States, and seems to have worked well. The blocks are compact, more easily administered than cottages, and their first cost is less. They are open to the objection, however, that they are, after all, aggregations of patients for custody and shelter, and are not designed to give a home life and stimulating surroundings to different classes of patients with varying necessities, nor to develop their capacity for useful occupation.

Allied to the "cottage system," of which it is a modification, comes the "colony system," as it has been projected in Michigan. What, then, is the colony system? Primarily, an outgrowth of the oft-repeated declaration that the insane are the wards of the State, and should be cared for in State institutions under State control. The experience of the past thirty years has demonstrated that, while it is not necessary to provide for all classes of the insane in the expensive manner at first contemplated in the earlier or even later State institutions, with corridors, single rooms, and the congregate system generally, it is none the less desirable that the State continue to furnish the same systematic and responsible care to the chronic insane, in some form, which she gives to recent and curable cases. The advantages of State care are obvious. It is permanent and capable of development as a definite State policy. The county system, as a whole, lacks definiteness of plan, and is haphazard and capricious, depending too much upon local public sentiment and individual ideas of reform and economy. The object of the colony system is to provide for recent and to retain chronic cases in the same institution, under proper medical control and supervision. The plan as projected and already partially carried out at the Michigan Asylum for the Insane, at Kalamazoo, is substantially this: tracts of land of varying size, to the extent of six hundred or one thousand acres in the aggregate, convenient of access to the central asylum, have been purchased, at a distance of two or more miles from the main asylum buildings. Upon these tracts of land detached buildings have been erected for the accommodation of such classes of the insane as are able to live outside of the asylum proper. These classes include such male and female patients as are in good physical health, who suffer, it is true, from confirmed forms of mental disease, but who are able to exercise a good degree of self-control and to enjoy the privileges and responsibilities of home life. These cottages are arranged for

from thirty to fifty patients, and are constructed in all essential respects like the ordinary farm-house, with the exception that they are built substantially of brick, with slate roofs to obviate the danger of fire. Each cottage is under the charge of a man and his wife, who are practically the housekeepers and heads of the family. As many attendants as are necessary to direct the labor of the patients and secure the requisite supervision are also provided. The farms surrounding these cottages are devoted to special branches of agriculture, which are carefully planned to furnish labor for patients and to lessen the cost of maintenance. One group of cottages, for example, is located upon a dairy farm, where the milk and butter for the parent institution are produced; another, upon a farm specially adapted to the raising of wheat and small grains; another is so located as to provide a supply of potatoes, vegetables, and fruits, which would otherwise need to be purchased, for the asylum. The women's cottages are arranged for the making of butter and cheese or for the manufacture of clothing and other supplies, which, if not manufactured or produced, would be purchased. In the cottages where the work is purely agricultural in character and confined to the summer season, arrangements are also made for trades and industries during inclement weather and the winter season. The labor of patients, systematized and intelligently directed by a competent head, it is confidently expected, will thus materially lessen the expenses of the support of all patients.

In some instances, these colonies will serve as half-way houses for patients who are convalescing from mental disease, but whose condition does not seem to justify the immediate renewal of home scenes and previous associations. Such patients can thus be tested to ascertain how they endure conditions of life allied to home and a freedom from the restraints of the asylum. The same will be true to a certain degree of many patients of a chronic class. With many, the removal to the colony as to a county asylum must be experimental. If the patient proves unequal to the greater freedom of the new life, it will be an easy task to retransfer him to the close asylum. It will be equally easy to return patients who suffer in health. The duplication of useless structures being unnecessary, hospitals, infirmaries, and strong rooms will continue to be at the parent institution, where the best care can be given to every patient who needs it, whether a chronic lunatic or a recent case. The colony will also offer equal advantages for every class of patients in good bodily health who are at all fitted for home life. In the opinion of the

officers of the asylum at Kalamazoo, "the change from the asylum to the colony will prove beneficial to many because it is a *change*. After a residence in the institution for several years, the halls, the furniture, and the surrounding scenery become familiar, and serve no longer to stimulate the mind or awaken pleasant emotions. . . . Patients going from one institution to another with many things in common are benefited by the change. How much greater benefit should we expect for them, if transferred to an institution arranged with special reference to their condition, giving greater freedom and regular occupation, and with new scenery for the diversion of their minds, such as the colony will afford!" It is also claimed that the "colony system" will remove many well-founded objections to the prosecution of profitable industries in asylums, on the score that they necessitate dangerous tools and workshops, which are unsafe among violent, suicidal, homicidal, or otherwise dangerous patients. Under this system, the workshop can be safely located in a colony where only trusty patients will have access to it, and where systematic industries may be prosecuted with a fair hope of success.

The advantages of the system are claimed to be :—

1. It secures a better supervision of the chronic insane than can be effected in county institutions, and in a style of building which is not expensive. Hence, it is a more satisfactory and economical arrangement. The county institution, as usually organized, lacks classification, competent medical supervision, and a responsible head. Cases of chronic mania are grouped with cases of chronic dementia; and the quiet are rendered uncomfortable by the presence of the untidy, disorderly, and noisy patients. Under the colony system, only the quiet classes are sent away from the main institution; and a noisy, uncomfortable patient, who requires special care, is retained where he can have intelligent, judicious supervision. A guarantee is also offered that, if the condition of the patient changes so that colony life is no longer adapted to his changed state, a return to the parent institution is a simple and inexpensive matter. The erection of the simple cottage of the "colony system" is much cheaper than the erection of the county asylum, with its strong rooms, cells, and other appliances for the care of noisy and violent patients.

2. The colony system allows conditions of life which approximate the ordinary surroundings of the home. The insane who must remain in an institution during the remainder of their lives, and look upon it as their permanent home, thus have a personal freedom,

quiet, and degree of comfort which are unattainable in the congregate system or among patients cared for in the county houses.

3. The labor of the chronic insane is utilized to lessen the cost of maintenance of the insane by the State. It is directed and controlled by competent authority. Systematic work is provided, adapted to individual conditions, which will keep patients in the open air and afford such activity as will promote health.

4. It solves the problem of the enlargement of institutions. Under the system which has heretofore existed, the cost of provision for the insane has been from \$800 to \$3,000 or \$4,000 per patient. The colony house can be erected and furnished at a cost not to exceed \$300 per patient. All existing institutions, with the exception possibly of those located in cities, can be advantageously enlarged in this manner. Tracts of land can be purchased, within a radius of from three to five miles, for the accommodation of those who are fitted for colony life. As fast as the central institution becomes crowded and an overflow is necessary, cottages can be erected at moderate cost, and filled with patients who have acquired habits of neatness, order, and self-control. There seems no limit to the extension of this form of provision for the insane. There are, indeed, serious objections to massing together large numbers of the insane. They become a source of annoyance to each other, and habits and customs are established which tend to deprive certain classes of patients of all feeling of comfort. They chafe under their surroundings, and cease to make efforts at self-control. The colony building, pleasantly located apart from the noise and confusion of the large institution, becomes a haven of rest and quiet, and constitutes a strong motive to exercise good self-control to get there, and to maintain it in order to keep there.

5. It has obvious advantages over any system which looks to the complete separation of the chronic and curable insane. It is cheaper, more accessible, more easily managed, and less objectionable than the separate provision of New York, Wisconsin, or other States.

TRAINING-SCHOOLS FOR ATTENDANTS IN ASYLUMS FOR THE INSANE.

BY RICHARD DEWEY, M.D., KANKAKEE, ILL.

An increasing interest has been shown in recent years in the special instruction and training of asylum attendants for their duties. This interest has grown in part from the difficulty of securing good attendants upon the insane and in part from the improved methods of care of sick patients which the nurses' training-schools in the general hospitals have rendered possible; while, as a whole, the efforts in this direction may be regarded as an outgrowth of the broader and wiser philanthropy of the times in which we live.

In these remarks, I shall aim to sketch something of what has been accomplished, and indicate the lines on which, it seems to me, the work still to be done must develop. Considering the nature of the work and of the material available for attendants, the prominent thought in my own mind is that simpler instruction and an attempt to limit the course to precisely that which the care of the insane requires, are the leading ways in which progress is to be made.

I take it for granted that arguments for the desirability and importance of any agency whereby the skill and intelligence of attendants upon the insane may be increased are not needed in this audience, and therefore make no effort to explain why training of attendants in schools is advocated for every institution for the insane. Schools have thus far been established for training of attendants upon the insane in the McLean Asylum of Massachusetts; in the Buffalo State Asylum of New York; in the Hudson River Asylum at Poughkeepsie, N.Y.; in the Indiana State Asylum at Indianapolis; and in the State Insane Hospital at Kankakee, Ill. So far as my knowledge extends, these are the only institutions that have entered systematically upon this work.

The first efforts were made at the McLean Asylum; and, even before the regular establishment there of a school, trained graduate nurses from the general hospital schools were employed for the care of the insane in that institution.

Then a systematic training of attendants was begun, and a course of instruction mapped out in a tentative way, which gradually assumed more and more completeness, until an organized and efficient school had been called into existence, which last year graduated a class of sixteen thoroughly trained and skilled female nurses, and this year another class of eight; while the first class of seven male nurses has already completed the first year of the required course.

Next, a noticeable effort in this direction was inaugurated in the Buffalo State Asylum of New York, marked by the preparation and publication by Dr. Granger, of the medical staff of that institution, of a little hand-book—the most practical and useful which has yet appeared—for the use of the classes and for the assistance of others engaging in like work.

The Buffalo State Asylum has graduated one class of trained female attendants, and must by this time have another class nearly ready to graduate, consisting of both men and women attendants. In neither of the two above-mentioned institutions were the men at first admitted to the classes. In the Buffalo Asylum, all attendants, both men and women, are now required to attend the school; and at the McLean Asylum only eight out of thirty-two male attendants are not members of the school.

Previous to the establishment of the Buffalo school, a beginning had been made at Flatbush, L.I., by engaging a graduate nurse from the Bellevue Hospital Training School to come and take direction of the care of all sick patients, and give instruction in a systematic way to the attendants in the female wards; a special effort also being made to improve the service, but not, so far as I understand, to organize a school.

The lady employed at Flatbush, L.I., was subsequently engaged at Poughkeepsie, N.Y., to take charge of the work of organizing a complete school in that institution; and an especial effort was made to induce graduate nurses of general hospital training-schools to enter this training-school for insane. But I have understood from Dr. Cleveland, the superintendent of the asylum at Poughkeepsie, that very few accepted this offer, and those who did so were found unsatisfactory,—not from any fault of the nurses themselves, but from a lack of previous experience with the insane and of adaptation for their work, it having been found that the nurses who have been accustomed exclusively to cases of bodily sickness are not only quite at a loss with care of insane persons, but have formed so strong a taste and preference for care of acute bodily disease, in which patients

soon get well or die, that they do not enter with interest into the care of the insane; and I may say further, I think it is considered an established fact that the ordinary training which nurses receive in general hospital training-schools is not required for the care of the insane, and would not fit attendants to be any more efficient in management of the average insane patient. For this reason, at the McLean Asylum, graduate nurses from general hospital training-schools are no longer sought as attendants.

At Indianapolis, in the Indiana State Asylum, a training-school for the attendants has been established for about a year, but has already graduated a class of thirteen women and one man, who were all attendants of long experience and exceptional ability and character. They had also received the benefit of a previous course of lectures and instruction given by Dr. Fletcher. I understand from Dr. Fletcher that his class for another year will have about one hundred members, and will include nearly equal numbers of each sex.

The training-schools of the McLean Asylum, of the Buffalo Asylum, and of the Indianapolis Asylum have all held commencement exercises, at which the graduates, on receiving their diplomas, presented some admirable papers of a practical character,—the outcome of their studies in the wards or of their class instruction.

At the Indianapolis Asylum, a prize was offered for the best set of notes on any given case of insanity; and thus were produced some very meritorious studies.

At the Kankakee Insane Hospital in Illinois, a school was established in November of last year, which was the result of an effort to embrace in the course of instruction *all* the attendants in the institution, of both sexes, and to give such measure of teaching and kind of training as could be applied to the *entire body* of those employed; and I must here ask the indulgence of the Conference if personal experience should seem to predominate unduly in what I have further to say upon this subject.

It was felt that the efforts heretofore made, which had embraced instruction only or chiefly of women, were doing only half of what it was important to do, and that, in copying so many features of the training-schools for nurses in general hospitals, some things were provided not needed in the asylum, while other kinds of training, quite uncalled for in the nurses' training-schools, were of the *first* importance for attendants upon the insane. A beginning was made at the institution of which I have charge by issuing a circular to furnish information of the proposed plan to all.

Attendants then in the service of the institution were all given the option of entering the school or not, but were informed that, eventually, it was expected that all the attendants in the hospital would be members of the school, and all newly engaged attendants would be required to enter the school. A general plan of the course of instruction to be given was also laid down in the circular.

Two years were to be covered by the course; and all who wished to enter the school were required to sign an agreement to remain through the two years and take the full course, and were warned not to enter the school unless prepared to do this, as permanency of service was one of the incidental but very important objects sought in organizing a school.

A small sum yearly for books was to be the only expense to attendants; and their pay was to remain the same as before, but with the understanding that those who eventually graduated from the school would be better paid than attendants not graduated.

About seventy-five of the one hundred and fifty attendants of the institution joined the school, nearly equally divided between the male and female attendants. The number has since increased to one hundred and twelve by new attendants coming in and old ones subsequently joining. The school is divided into four classes. Each class has one weekly meeting and recitation. Two classes meet at the same hour, on two successive days, in separate recitation rooms, the superintendent and one of the medical staff each taking a class and each giving the same lecture.

Some of the subjects of the first three months' lectures may be mentioned, and will best illustrate the difference between this instruction and any that would be called for in an ordinary nurses' training-school.

The first lecture treated of the fact that insanity was a disease, but a disease with the strange peculiarity that it could not ordinarily be managed or cared for at home. Attention was called to the unfortunate predicament of a sick person who has to be sent away from home and friends for treatment; and the need that the asylum should supply, as far as possible, the place of home and friends was emphasized. Some of the reasons were also indicated why it was difficult always to realize that insanity is a disease; and an elucidation was given, as simple as possible, of disease of brain and nerves and its effect upon mind and conduct. No effort was made to teach anything of anatomy or physiology of brain or nervous system, as these were regarded as subjects only to be approached with advantage by the

average student during the final months of the course. The question of responsibility of insane persons for their acts was fully discussed, as tending to show why the infliction of any penalty or punishment upon an insane person was inappropriate, and the means explained by which discipline could be maintained and good conduct encouraged without resort to force. One lecture was given to the subject of rights, duties, and privileges of asylum attendants, as related to the institution, to themselves, and to their patients; and emphasis was laid upon the fact that the sole object of the existence of the hospital and or the presence therein of any person in its employ was for the benefit of the patient and the protection of the public.

"Putting ourselves in the Place of our Patients" was the subject of two lectures, an especial effort being made to explain that the universal discontent of insane persons is a most natural feeling, due to their being deprived of one of the dearest possessions of life,—namely, *liberty*,—without being able to appreciate the reason for this deprivation; and means of promoting contentment by recreation and employment were discussed and explained.

One or more lectures each were given to the care of several different groups of the insane, as the noisy and violent, the stupid and melancholy, the suicidal and homicidal, and the untidy, mischievous, and unemployed.

The subject of another lecture was "The Sources of Danger to Life in Asylums for the Insane." A very elementary and easily understood description was then given of the leading forms of insanity in their outward manifestation, accompanied by studies and descriptions of cases. All means whereby neglect and abuse of the insane could be avoided were studied with especial care, and one lecture of the course was given to this subject.

These lectures and their subjects are mentioned because they are believed, in the main, to be unlike any heretofore presented. With each and every lecture of the course goes a set of very carefully prepared questions and answers, covering the matter of the lecture. These are furnished to each member of the class in printed form, and must be copied into a book kept by each attendant for that purpose and committed to memory. An examination, written and oral, is held every three months. This series of printed questions and answers is regarded as especially important, since the amount of education and previous mental discipline in the case of the average attendant are not such as to enable him or her to study up any given subject without some explicit aid of the most direct, simple, and literal character.

The remainder of the year's instruction consists of three months' teaching of elementary matters connected with sanitation, care of the sick, and the usual applications, manipulations, apparatus, etc., required; also, what to do in emergencies. About four months more are occupied by anatomy and physiology, leading up to the study of the nervous system and the brain, which come last of all; and their presentation is coupled with such explanations of the working of mind in health and disease as can profitably be presented. The most practical character possible is given to each and every lecture; and, where it is possible to give the lecture the form of an object lesson by the use of apparatus, drawings, manipulations in presence of the class, use of skeleton, and anatomical preparations of all sorts, this is done.

The second year is a repetition of the first, with special instruction to advanced students in massage, bathing, use of battery, and all appliances that the treatment of the insane places in the hands of the attendant.

As a result of experience thus far obtained in the first year of the training-school at Kankakee, it may be said an improvement in the service has become plainly visible, not only directly from what the attendants have learned, but also from the new habits of study and observation which have been fostered by the school, and have created a new interest in their work on the part of attendants.

We have also been able to raise the standard in the character and quality of the persons engaged as attendants. The training-school gives a dignity and importance to the calling of attendant which it did not before possess, and attracts a more intelligent and worthy class of young men and women. Furthermore, by means of the training-school, a far greater average length of service is secured, the value and importance of which I need not explain. One practical result of our experience was the release of attendants from their agreement to stay two years. All attendants of the training-school are now permitted to give ninety days' notice, when wishing to leave; and this takes the place of the thirty days' notice which is customary with all other employees. The first regulation made in this respect was copied from the nurses' training-schools, but the different conditions of the insane hospital render it undesirable.

Experience in the development of a training-school for attendants shows some things to be desirable which are not yet provided for. One is more systematic instruction in the mechanical details of the ward work, such as bedmaking, cleaning, and general duties of the nature of housework, since many of the attendants have had no pre-

vious experience in this line; and it is necessary that all should at least understand how such work should be done. Another is the introduction of a person to permanently act as principal of the school, since the medical officers are too fully occupied with other duties to admit of their permanently managing the details of the training-school without other duties suffering thereby; although, in the inception of the enterprise, only the medical officers are competent to direct the work.

To sum up as briefly as possible the points involved in the foregoing pages, I would say:—

1. The calling of an attendant in an asylum, like every other vocation in life, needs training and apprenticeship; and, if there is any difference between that and other callings, it needs it *more* than most of the ordinary forms of service in public institutions. This is amply illustrated by the practical results of the present method (or lack of method), which is attended with considerable public dissatisfaction and marked by the occurrence from time to time of unfortunate cases of neglect or mistreatment, which are far more the result of *ignorance* than of any wrong intention on the part of asylum attendants, but which, unhappily, convey exaggerated impressions of misdoing to the public mind, and result in the loss, in some measure, of the public confidence which every public institution should command.

2. The training-school for attendants upon the insane, though in part an outgrowth of the training-schools for nurses, has an essentially different character,—requires much that a sick-nurse does not need to know; while, on the other hand, much of the nurse's instruction would be thrown away on the asylum attendant. Indeed, it may be said that, so far as the bodily sick among the insane are concerned, their care could be best provided for by employing graduate trained nurses; while, for the care of all other classes of the insane, the trained nurse of the general hospital is no better fitted by reason of a course in a training-school for sick-nurses.

3. While the work of nursing the sick is peculiarly a woman's work, the proper care of the insane requires an equal number of trained attendants of each sex.

4. The persons who are willing to engage in the care of the insane as attendants do not possess the education and previous mental training which would be desirable, if attainable; and, therefore, their instruction must be of the most direct, plain, and simple character, commencing with elementary matters and reducing all subjects pre-

sented to the lowest terms of simplicity and clearness, and differing in this from much of the instruction that the picked classes of the nurses' training-schools can readily receive.

Finally, a training-school for attendants is desirable in every institution for the insane for the following reasons:—

1. The care of the insane is a calling which demands skill and intelligence of a high order.
2. The average attainments of those who seek such employment are not of a high order, and need to be improved by every possible means.
3. Greater permanency of service and more experienced attendants will be secured by the training-school.
4. An improvement will take place in the character of the persons who will seek such service.
5. The administration of institutions for the insane will be more satisfactory to the public, because more intelligent and more conscientious.

IX.

Child-saving Work.

THE CHILDREN OF "SHINBONE ALLEY."

BY REV. R. W. HILL, D.D.

The saving of children from vice and crime is one of the most important of public duties; for is not prevention far better than cure? Children are so readily tainted with evil and so susceptible to the influence of vicious surroundings that whatever is done in their behalf must take cognizance of their earliest years, and preserve them from debasing influences at the time when they are apt to be most impressed by them. The first few years of life are generally indicative of the future in store for the child, and any effort in its behalf, to be successful, ought to be made when the young mind is most ready to receive and retain impressions. One of the great faults of our charitable machinery is that it seeks to ameliorate rather than prevent distress; and, while there are numberless associations to *reform* the vicious, there are comparatively few whose object is to *prevent* the formation of vicious characters. And yet it is easier to lead a child than to urge a man. The hardening process is more difficult to undo than is the effort required to mould the young life into right forms. As society is constituted to-day, there are many evil influences which grow stronger to destroy the moral life with each year, for the reason that we begin our efforts for reform at the wrong end, permitting evil to have full sway over the earlier years of life.

It is because of this tendency to await the full development of evil that there is a necessity for the darker aspects of life to be thrust upon our attention. We prefer the other side of society; but, to make society pure, we must know its darker side, and realize the presence of evils which, left to themselves, will ultimately destroy the body politic. Hence we study, not only parks, fine buildings, and refined homes, but as well the streets and prisons and alleys.

Perhaps, to-day, you may be interested in a place which I remember as one of the abodes of utter wretchedness.

In a quarter of the great city, down near the water front, are many narrow streets where the houses bear the marks of hardest usage. Long ago, this quarter was occupied by the families of well-to-do citizens, and was one of the most respectable in the whole city. Then each house had its little garden in the rear, and the quiet streets were always clean. The houses were eminently respectable in appearance; while the inhabitants—old and young—were of the better class, among whom such habits as drunkenness and profanity were almost unknown. But, as the commercial activity of the city increased, business warehouses encroached more and more upon this section, driving out the merchants and well-to-do people, who preferred a quarter more remote from business for their homes; and thus these streets and houses were surrendered to a different class of inhabitants. In time, the houses were neglected, the streets were left uncleaned; and, as a general air of poverty and decay settled on the quarter, the moral tone seemed to lower, until, at last, where once respectability and wealth had dwelt, poverty, vice, and crime held sway. Then, too, many of the smaller houses disappeared, and tall barracks of brick occupied the ground. The rooms of these were made very small, so that the rental income might be greater; while in the other houses fronting the street the larger rooms were divided and subdivided, and many families were crowded into buildings originally intended for but one. The fronts were generally altered to serve for stores; and, what with junkshops, saloons, stores, and stables, the street was entirely changed. But the view from the sidewalk does not tell the whole story; for there is a certain restraint imposed on those who live in these buildings, and the waifs, the vagrants, and criminal seek a greater seclusion from official eyes than is possible in buildings fronting the streets.

But behind the front buildings, on the ground once used for gardens, is a second row of buildings, rotten with age and filth. From the open court-yard between front and rear buildings ever ascends the odor of decaying vegetable matter from the piles of garbage emptied into the alley and court-yard as the most convenient of dumping-places. These buildings, as well as the yards and street, are crowded by day and by night with half-dressed men, women, and children, in the daytime playing, working, swearing, fighting, and at night drinking and sleeping off the effects of past hours of horrible indulgence, or else making preparations for some new break. "In all this quar-

ter," says a visitor, "the houses are so old and have been so neglected that the water stands in pools on the floors where it has streamed down from the broken roof during the last storm of rain, and on the walls the mould and mildew send forth a smell like that from a tomb. The floors shake under the tread of the passer, and are worn through in places, revealing the joists pierced by rot, and, in many instances, only held in position by the remnant of plaster which still clings to the ceiling beneath them. And every one of these old buildings is a perfect haven for vermin. Walls, woodwork, ceiling, and every crack and cranny teem with a crawling mass of insect life, which preys on any unfortunate who enters the rooms." No wonder, then, that women and children keep out in the court-yards and street as much as possible; for out of the sky there drops on upturned face no insect pest, and, though the air be tainted with effluvia from cesspools and sewers, it is still better than the deathlike reek of the buildings. This is one of the last resorts of the penniless and the criminal. Here humanity has reached its lowest level, and here is the *ultima* *thule* of degradation and misery.

In the days when happy, prosperous homes were here, a merchant had left a driveway on one side of his lot,—a driveway which led from the street to his stables in the rear; but, in time, this driveway became an alley leading to the wretched dwellings built on the site of the old stables and gardens. The houses on either side of the alley were built out so as to roof over the road; and thus it became a dark, damp, and low passage, leading from the street to the rear houses. This passage, as well as the court between the front and rear dwellings, was locally known as "Shinbone Alley."

All were not of the criminal class, however, who lived in this place. Often, through misfortune, poor and honest people were compelled to accept there a shelter which they were unable to purchase elsewhere; and thus the families of hard-working mechanics, widows, and orphaned children were brought into association with those who were the outcasts of society. When the shrill whistle of the factory and the clanging bell of the shop called people to labor, many of the dwellers in "Shinbone Alley" responded; and boys and girls, as well as men and women, went out to a day of toil, honestly endeavoring to earn a living for themselves and those dependent upon them. But the great majority of the dwellers in the alley were people whose lives were darkened, if not by crime, certainly by vice and the misery consequent upon sin and want. Human life, as well as property, was lightly esteemed; while the sanctities of the home were almost

unknown. To exist without labor, to eat the bread of idleness, to drink until intoxicated,—this was the ideal of happiness to the many; and to reach this condition of drunkenness was the only good worthy of effort.

Children brought up under such conditions (and children swarmed there in astonishing numbers) necessarily reflected their surroundings, and drifted to a life of crime. Little fellows hardly able to walk aped the swagger and, as far as possible, the language of their elders. It was no uncommon sight to see children of both sexes under the influence of intoxicants, and the virtues of honesty and truth-telling were rare. And yet these children were naturally bright, and with proper surroundings would, in most cases, have done no discredit to their teachers. The trouble was *in the conditions* under which they began their career. With such a start, it would be a miracle if they ever lifted themselves to a much higher plane. Most of them were handicapped at birth, and every one of the surroundings impelled the poor children toward a life of vice. While the evils of intemperance were plainly seen by them, and often talked about, and while all the horrors of delirium tremens were constantly around them, they had no stimulus to escape from the abyss. Drinking was the general custom. It was not wrong in their eyes; and, had it been so pronounced by any of the inhabitants, it would have furnished another reason for drifting into the habit, for such children soon learn to love a violation of right.

Once in a while, a representative of a higher life would venture into the neighborhood; but, while for the moment the better life reflected in dress and manner and speech would attract the childish mind quite strongly, the sneers and powerful influence of evil associates soon drove out the desire for the higher life, and old ideas and vicious habits resumed sway over the young mind.

When we examine critically the influences which in such places as that described are moulding the characters of the children who are dwellers therein, we find the main incentives to vice—the causes which, above all others, exert a strong power in determining life habits—may be briefly stated as: (1) the inherited tendency, (2) ignorance, (3) constant association with the depraved, (4) intemperance, and (5) the crowded condition of the houses. Of course, each of these principal causes has several others dependent; but remove these, and it would become a comparatively easy matter to make exemplary citizens of all the children of the “Shinbone Alleys” of our land.

Of these five principal causes, the third and the fifth seem to be

almost the same ; but the third refers to association with the depraved who are *outside* of the home, the Arabs of the docks and streets, while the other refers to that total breaking down of the barriers of modesty which is a necessary consequence when old and young are compelled to herd together in the cramped quarters of the worst classes of city tenements. We might also say that these two develop the tendency to idleness and vagrant instinct with great rapidity. The streets are better than the home, and thus the home is only resorted to for shelter when night or storm has come.

Taking up these causes, we naturally examine the inherited tendency to vice. As a student of the Bible as well as a student of social problems, I am a firm believer in the existence of human depravity, and conscientiously uphold the doctrine that all human beings inherit the seeds of evil, which, if not uprooted, will in time ruin the whole being. And yet, holding fast to this doctrine, I also hold fast to a belief that virtues are transmitted and intensified, and that these may become strong enough, through inheritance, to control the character and check the growth of evil tendencies. But it is one of the laws of nature that the sins of the parents are visited on the children. This must be taken into account whenever we attempt to solve the problems of society. Diseased and enfeebled parents beget diseased and enfeebled children, and this is as true of the mind as of the body. The characteristics of the parents are reproduced in the children, often intensified to such a degree as, when evil, to alarm even the thoughtless. The stream has no power to lift itself above its fountain. The moral and intellectual *status* of parents generally marks the limit of attainment for children left to themselves. There is no hope of betterment so long as the ordinary law of nature holds good. Heredity as surely dooms the progeny of the depraved as water runs down hill. It requires an *outside* force to save them, and a power, too, greater and more kindly than the public interest, which usually concerns itself with the denizens of haunts of vice. It is a hard saying to utter, that children are criminals by fate ; and yet, with such antecedents and with such cruel surroundings, the birth of children is the prophecy of crime for the future. In the years hence, when these young dwellers in the "Shinbone Alleys" of the country shall have grown accustomed, as they will be, to an atmosphere of vice and crime, there is nothing to be expected save a series of crimes of which they are to be the perpetrators. It is time for society to awake to the fact that such places are hot-beds of vice, where each generation will prove worse than the one that preceded it. The tendency is down, not up ; worse, not better.

But ignorance is a fruitful source of vicious habits in these children of the alleys. Not the ignorance of letters, but the ignorance of the consequences of acts which do not present themselves to their minds as evils *per se*. Not many young children have the power to distinguish good from evil, and the ordinary surroundings of the children of poverty have a tendency to diminish rather than to add to the innate power of discernment in this regard. Familiarity with vice gives to it, in their eyes, the appearance of virtue; and many a child is lost to virtue because of this ignorance of what is best for its future. Of course, it cannot be said that illiteracy is not effective in building up vicious habits; but, often before a child has learned to read or even reached the age where we commonly give the first lessons of the primer, evil habits and vicious modes of thought and life are already fastened securely because of that childish ignorance which has led to imitation of the habits and example of those with whom the child has come into most familiar contact. Sin assumes the guise of pleasure to them. With no one to lead away from temptation and reveal the awful consequences of evil, it does not take long to permanently fix the habit of indulgence. Go to any one of the public schools of a large city, and examine the very youngest of the children in attendance, both male and female, and it will be discovered, if the examination is thoroughly made, that evil is deeply seated in those living under such conditions; and it is often confessed, without any sense of its pernicious effects. Such children will boast of habits destructive alike to soul and body, in utter ignorance of the dangerous character of the acts confessed. Ignorance is thus one of the nursing mothers of vice.

But, again, an inciting cause of vice in such children is found in intemperance. Under such conditions as have been described, *all* vices propagate themselves; and especially is this true of the drink habit. Children of the most tender years are familiarized with the grog-shop and with the taste of intoxicants. The child expects and receives part of the beer or whiskey it has just purchased; and the "sugar in the glass," given often to infants, implants a love of liquor which requires strength of character and helpful environments to subdue. The example of parents and associates stimulates and quickens the childish desire, until in time intemperance, with all its train of attendant evils, is dominant. Children of less than five years of age have been found stupefied with whiskey given to them by older persons, and in some instances purchased by money filched by the child from the pockets of drunken parents. Not to speak of the

consequences of the intemperance of parents and others brought into daily contact with these children of the slums, intemperance as a *personal* habit, early acquired, and fostered by example and surroundings, is a fruitful source of the many other vicious habits which abound wherever the wretched outcasts and waifs of society herd together.

Perhaps the most powerful incentive to vice is found in constant association of the young with the depraved. Probably more potent even than hereditary impulse is this effect of the crowded quarters of our cities. Early and late, this influence is at work upon unfortunate children; and, as one cannot touch pitch without defilement, so the contact of depravity with innocence is destructive to the latter. The vagrant habit, which is such a marked characteristic of many of the dependent children of the cities,—a habit vividly described by Victor Hugo, and as common in London and Paris as in New York, Chicago, or San Francisco,—is directly traceable to the influence of depraved associates. Like the leaven hidden in the meal, finally leavening all, depravity makes its own all who are brought into close relations with it. The crowded condition of the Shinbone Alleys, the Five Points, the Barbary Coasts, and similar slums, renders this association inevitable; and, until some plan can be devised by which crowding will be impossible, it will be difficult to prevent that debauching of character which is consequent upon indiscriminate herding together of old and young, innocent and vicious.

What can be done, you ask? Would that I could answer! But can we not (1) prevent crowding by rigid enforcement of laws regulating air space in occupied buildings; (2) remove the children of criminals and drunkards from the custody of such parents; (3) rigidly enforce laws against vagrant children, arresting them and putting them under the care of proper societies or officers; (4) provide constant inspection for such houses as are occupied by several families; (5) and finally act, as well as theorize, more earnestly?

RECLAMATION OF CHILDREN.

BY ALBERT S. WHITE,

SUPERINTENDENT OF FRANKLIN COUNTY CHILDREN'S HOME, OHIO.

It is believed by the pioneers in this noble work that home adoption has been a great factor in the saving of children. In Ohio, where homes have been established long enough to test the matter by statistics, it has proved a blessing to both the child adopted and to its foster parents. The earlier the child who has been born amid poverty and vice can be secured, the more easily is the objective point attained.

So far as experience goes in the reclamation of children, the indications are that a large majority of children who have been early domiciled in the several homes of the State, and especially in the Franklin County Home, are sought for by those desiring to adopt them as their own. Though there is no special officer whose duty it is to hunt out proper homes for the children, the appeal of the officers in charge to citizens generally, to interest themselves in providing homes for those who have been fitted to enter them, has of late years been generally responded to.

It has been suggested that in older and more populous centres than this there is a tendency to retain children in the institution, and that institution life is encouraged by those who have become personally interested in the children.

The extent of this influence in older States and communities cannot well be ascertained with any degree of certainty. In the newer States, and especially in Ohio, such a tendency does not prevail. In this home there has not been the slightest indication of a desire, upon the part of the children who have been properly trained and educated, to remain in the institution; and one of the first duties of teachers and attendants is to inspire in the minds of their charges ideas of self-support and independence.

Objection has been made by those desiring children for adoption to accept those whose parents, either of them, were criminals or paupers, believing that vice and crime are inherited. The superficial student of history even would have little, if any, doubt that such belief is a popular delusion. A profound and patient investigator of this question says: "The progress of the child is one of opportunity. It is improvement after birth,—not of internal power,

but of external advantage. The child born in a civilized land is not likely, as such, to be superior to one born among barbarians; and the difference which ensues between the two acts of the children will be caused, so far as we know, solely by the pressure of external circumstances, by which is meant the surroundings, opinions, knowledge, association,—and, in a word, the entire mental atmosphere,—in which the two children are respectively nurtured.” Hence, when children are early reclaimed from criminal and pauper association, and their condition changed to that of wholesome influences, they are, to all intents and purposes, on the same vantage-ground as those whom fortune has more highly favored on their advent into the world.

It is the belief of those who have been close observers that the agitation of new questions in politics and in our whole social economy will more speedily advance public sentiment in favor of the great work of reclaiming children. So far as the hardened criminal is concerned, reform is next to impossible. It is not impossible, however, to prevent children from becoming criminals and burdens to society. The children’s home is the training-school where they are taught to become producers rather than consumers, to become ornaments to society rather than a disgrace, and, in a word, to become useful men and women. The home is thus made a home, a school, a chapel,—a kind of workshop, where all the faculties are developed; and, when a child is fitted to enter a good home for adoption, it is desirable that it should enter upon its new life without unnecessary delay.

The genius of reform is abroad in our State. In no part of the country has the question of prison reform and kindred topics been agitated to a greater extent than in Ohio. Public sentiment is in advance of the politicians. The two great parties have been compelled to recognize this fact by pledges in their conventions to enact such measures as will most speedily effect the reform desired. Enlightened public sentiment is such that we feel assured that no backward step will meet with approval from the people. The system, if it may be so called, of district and county homes for children has proved the most important factor yet introduced for diminishing the number of criminals by making good citizens of the offspring of offenders.

It may therefore be said in a word that the work of saving children is best accomplished by securing those who are surrounded by the pauper and criminal classes at the earliest age possible, and plac-

ing them in homes. * They should there remain until they are thoroughly fitted to enter homes provided for them by legal adoption.

There does not appear to be danger of overcrowding the homes. New homes are being established in the State, and the day is not far distant when every one of the eighty-eight counties of Ohio will either have a home of its own or be embraced in a district home.

By a proper appeal to the citizens of each county and district to receive for adoption those who have been trained and educated to enter homes of adoption, none of the homes will become overcrowded. The way to usefulness is open to all. There is too much life and activity in this country for a boy or a girl long to remain in idleness. Qualify them for the duties of life, point the way, and they will walk therein, and be saved.

THE ECONOMY OF THE STATE IN THE CARE OF DEPENDENT AND NEGLECTED CHILDREN.

BY MRS. V. T. SMITH.

The scheme of work for dependent and neglected children in Connecticut, together with the provisions of the act of 1883, establishing county temporary homes for children between the ages of two and sixteen, was explained at the Washington Conference, as also the work of the homes in connection with finding homes for children. The actual benefits derived in the last two years from the agency of the homes have convinced the people of Connecticut that, although an increasing expense to the State, it is, nevertheless, the State's truest economy to support them.

As our experience may be of interest to those contemplating similar effort, we venture briefly to allude to it in this short paper on the practical aspect of this special phase of preventive work. We were warned at the outset by persons of insight and experience, who entertained positive views of the desirability of family life for children, that the one danger in establishing the temporary homes lay in the fact that they would become essentially institutions, from the tendency to retain the children longer in them than would be absolutely necessary to provide them with proper homes in private families. While deprecating any agency which should operate to interfere with the plan of their quickly securing homes, we were even then convinced

of the propriety of becoming thoroughly acquainted with a child's manners, habits, and traits of character, in order to carefully adapt it to a home; and we are satisfied from the trial already made that a place of temporary detention is an absolute necessity in doing the wisest work for children. Locating a child permanently in a home at the first trial is to insure (in so far as human foresight can insure it) its future well-being; but not until the child has been carefully studied and thoroughly understood can the wisest board of management place it with any surety of meeting the wishes of the family receiving it or of securing to the child the nurture necessary to its own deepest needs.

The only possible exception to this rule is in the placing of infants, which must of necessity be done at the risk of adaptation, but with the accompanying expectation that, given the proper nurture and surroundings in infancy, they will develop to the entire satisfaction of the families into which they go.

We are convinced also that, while to place a child satisfactorily to all concerned in its first adopted home is to render it an incalculable service, the failure to accomplish this result is frequently a greater misfortune than at first appears. Such failure reacts upon the child, who goes reluctantly and with unreasoning distrust into its next trial place; and an unfavorable feeling is also created in the minds of the disappointed family, who perhaps decline to receive another child for fear of undergoing a similar experience, while their newly awakened prejudice is frequently communicated to those who, from a tender interest in children, had about decided to apply for one to adopt.

Indeed, this special work of child-saving, which, judiciously accomplished, is more fruitful in its results than the most sanguine advocates of the system anticipated, is found to depend largely for its success upon the discretion exercised in placing them in homes, that discretion being based upon such love of the work as gives the worker a thorough knowledge of the needs of the children. Our law had for its starting-point the emptying of almshouses of their children and the forbidding of towns thereafter to keep children in them, as also their removal from vicious surroundings, wherever found. The temporary homes were created, therefore, as *emergency homes*, in which they should be sheltered until a sufficient knowledge of their need warrant their being placed in family homes.

The law provided three ways by which the children could be committed to the homes: —

1. That overseers of the poor might commit them at the expense of the town.

2. Courts might commit them at the expense of the State.

3. That private persons, societies, etc., might commit them at their own expense.

From the beginning, the largest and most influential towns in our State disregarded the law, the children of those towns going into the homes at private or State expense, without interference or responsibility on the part of the town officials. The smaller towns, in many instances, carefully obeyed the law, many of the more philanthropic of the overseers of the poor expressing approval at the changed conditions and the satisfactory provision for the children, who had heretofore run wild in the almshouses of the State, exposed to fearful demoralization, or who, in living with vicious and criminal parents, had been equally exposed to degradation and sin. Various attempts were made to create further public sentiment and to quicken the consciences of indifferent officials to a point where each town should gladly accept its financial responsibility in the work. The boards of management were aided in every county by what are termed "committees,"—unpaid local residents, women selected for their good standing and well-known benevolence; and, while through their intelligent and conscientious efforts every town in the State has come to acknowledge the blessing of the homes, still the general tendency of officials has been to depend more and more upon the State, the smaller towns even following the example of the larger ones in permitting and even invoking the aid of the State, through the Humane Society, where cases come to light that must be committed to the temporary homes.

The question of creating a penalty for towns habitually and positively disobeying the law has naturally come up in its turn for discussion. The Board of Charities scarcely favored asking for such legislation, although realizing that the defiant attitude of a few representative towns was a special drawback to the harmonious working of the law. The Board's report of 1886 to the Governor reviews the question, and asks "attention to the apparently increasing disposition of town officials to commit children to these homes through the courts, thus throwing upon the State expenses which the towns ought to bear, unless it be the policy of the State to assume them and relieve the towns." "The time," it continues, "seems to have come to decide whether or not that shall be the policy of the State. To take no action this year will be to confirm and increase the existing practice,—a practice which it will be very difficult to change or check a few years hence, and which will exact from the State an expenditure by no means inconsiderable." The actual financial outlay at this date

being divided between the towns and the State, with an increasing tendency on the part of the former to make use of the State as a means of definite and unfailing relief from such expense, suggests this pertinent and practical inquiry; namely, How far is the State responsible in the care of its helpless and neglected children? There is apparently an assumption in the minds of non-complying officials that the State is the only legitimate and entirely complaisant parent to which these children can lay claim, and that, as a matter of course, they should be borne in her benignant and ample arms, and fed by her wise and liberal hand; while the towns grouped in counties are occupied in a systematic and benevolent effort to place them in the outside world on sure foundations. I have fluctuated in my opinion with regard to the practice or otherwise of this stand-point, and have considered, so far as my knowledge of facts would permit, the relative advantages and disadvantages of caring for the children through municipal or State expense; and, while doubtless there is much that can be said in favor of the former system, I confess that widening experience inclines me to the plan which the provisions of our law have developed. Experience has demonstrated, in other places and in other phases of work, that service rendered through the medium of the broadest government is more efficient, humane, and satisfactory than through the narrower and more conservative channels of the towns. It, moreover, goes without saying that towns, as a rule, require in their selectmen or overseers that dollar and cent economy in all matters relating to cost that would probably prevent the children of some towns from receiving promptly, if ever, the necessary protection of the temporary homes, unless penalties were attached for disobedience that would cause a greater outlay of money than obedience to the law; but granted that the State assumes the responsibility, and looks with favor upon all attempts to rescue her children and incorporate them into the natural life of communities throughout or beyond the State, we predict that overseers of the poor will cordially co-operate in giving all necessary information and taking all necessary steps to the thorough carrying out of the work in hand. Then, and, we are inclined to think, not until then, will the acme of success be attained. No neighborhood will then be so conspicuous or obscure, so densely or so sparsely populated, that the official eye will not detect each neglected and suffering child, and gladly start it on the blessed journey into self-respecting and affectionate family life.

Doubtless, the question will arise, if the work is hereafter financially carried by the State, if a State institution shall not take the place of the county homes. We believe that the intelligence which founded

the temporary homes, and is expressed in existing legislation concerning them, will continue to maintain them, and will resist any attempt to thus complicate and hinder their work. In the small State of Connecticut, the county homes (many of them already bought and owned by the counties) are little more at present than large families of children. Very few, if any, of the undesirable conditions of institution life attach to them. In these same small homes, the education of the children in practical matters begins at once, fitting them specially for life in private families; while institution life is frequently found to unfit them for it. The location of the homes particularly favors the work of the committees, being near and easy of access, and containing so few in numbers that every inmate can be known by one determined to know them almost as readily as the children of a family. The influence of the ordinary roadside school and village church which the children now attend might be interrupted by bringing school and church under the roof of the institution, making the inevitable monotony of their lives still more monotonous; and the people of Connecticut have sufficiently tested the excellences of the plan of the county homes to already realize their assistance to the State in the performance of her duty.

Notwithstanding the somewhat peculiar experiences and perturbations of the last two years, this growing work has gone grandly forward and shown extremely gratifying results; while the State has stood true to the multiplying burdens committed to her care. The sum and substance of it is that the State is convinced that to give her children the best possible opportunities to become good men and women is the best economy, and that nothing which conduces to this eminently wise yet simple plan should be left undone or done with half a heart. In connection with public financial aid, good people all over the State are showing themselves willing to labor for the success of this work. Especially do women seem qualified to help on a work which elevates the children. By the energetic efforts of committees, the homes are frequently visited; while, through the affectionate interest of many citizens, they are benevolently remembered at every season of the year.

The children placed in homes on any other terms except adoption are also visited; and it seems to us that the time has arrived when all the forces of true sympathy and financial aid are working in unison to accord to these children of the State all the rights and privileges which we insure our own, believing that by this means we may in time reduce the number of children in reformatories and of criminals in jails and prisons.

X.

Moral and Industrial Training.

PREVENTIVE WORK.

BY REV. M. MCG. DANA, D.D.

The great question of the hour for those intent upon making the world better and saving the young from joining the great army of criminals is this of preventive work. "An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure"; and, while there is much that is heroic in the efforts we see made to rescue and reform wrong-doers, there is far more virtue and good sense shown in endeavors to prevent wrongdoing. In the downward path which leads to a criminal life, the first step is by far the most important; and just at this point is where the utmost effort should be expended. From my observation during my recent visit to England, I was impressed with the emphasis being put upon this sort of work. Its economy is now recognized as never before, which leads the State to assist such organized movements as aim to check crime at its fountain-head. Its hopefulness, too, is admitted; for you can more readily prevent than cure crime, if you will begin soon enough. Its wisdom, also, is now more generally acknowledged; and, as a result, work among the young of every character is meeting with marked favor and generous support. An English prison official of large experience (Chaplain Cloy, of Preston prison, England) says, "I am led to believe in respect to actual though undetected delinquency that fifty-eight per cent. first practised dishonesty when under fifteen; fourteen per cent., between fifteen and sixteen; eight per cent., under seventeen, eighteen, or nineteen; and twenty per cent., under twenty." This would go to show that most criminals began on a career of dishonesty when under twenty years of age, and more than half when under fifteen. Preventive measures, therefore, applied below these ages, could surely hope to be exceedingly effective in staying the development of crime. In the early part of our century, the extent of juvenile criminality in Great Britain

was something appalling. Young people were systematically trained in vice, and were employed to operate where adults could not. Even boys of twelve, fourteen, and sixteen were sometimes hanged; and a noted instance of a child named Leary is on record, who commenced at the age of eight by stealing apples, and, progressing through thefts of a minor kind, became at last the head of a gang, and was at the age of thirteen sentenced to be hanged, but got off with transportation for life. There were said to be two hundred flash-houses in London frequented by six thousand boys and girls, who had no other occupation but that of thieving. Now look at the advance made. In 1816, when the population of London was under a million and a half, there were in its prisons alone three thousand inmates under twenty. Half of these were under seventeen, some were nine and ten; and one thousand of these children, so to speak, were convicted of felony. Now, with a population, in 1884, in England and Wales, of twenty-seven millions, there were at that date only two hundred and seventy-five prisoners under sixteen, and three thousand two hundred and twenty-six between sixteen and twenty-one. Eleven years after Howard published his *State of Prisons*, the Philanthropic Society's Farm School, now located at Red Hill, Surrey, was founded; *i.e.*, 1788 or 1789. England's first prison reformatory was established at Parkhurst, on the Isle of Wight; and in 1849 there were about seven hundred young persons confined therein; on Dec. 31, 1864, only fifty-eight, when it was closed, and since 1886 there have been no juveniles in any government convict establishment. The English authorities make this distinction between a reformatory and an industrial school. The first is a place of punishment for a convicted offender, as well as a place of training; and reception into a reformatory must be preceded by a period of prison confinement of not less than ten days. The industrial school, on the other hand, is purely a preventive or training institution, from which the conviction for certain crimes will exclude a child. Chaplain Horsley, a man of very extended experience and observation, said to his bishop, when asked what were the greatest hindrances of religion, "First, drinking; second, the British parent; third, the British employer; fourth, the respectability of the Church." It was a sad commentary on the second of these hindrances that statistics showed that, of those sent home after serving their time in Feltham Industrial School, twenty-three per cent. were speedily reconvicted, while of those otherwise provided for only five per cent. went wrong; and the Reformatory in Connecticut, by its own reports, conforms to this experience. Here

are the forces both of environment and heredity working disastrously on the children of parents who are themselves vicious or who make their homes anything but schools of virtue and abodes of safety.

Hence in England, and growing somewhat in our own country, the idea of transplanting the children of such to new homes is meeting with greater favor. What show is there for the boy or girl whose home is in the overcrowded tenement, where no principles of modesty or even morality can be taught or observed? The most effective preventive work, therefore, has regard to the parents as well as to its immediate subjects; for free kindergartens have, it is said, found a reflex influence on the homes whence their pupils come. They go back with new views of cleanliness, and at once introduce new and better ideals of life. Then, when you rise to manual and technical schools, they tend to augment the bread-winning powers of those who avail of their advantages; and, if our educational system can be made more practical by having grafted upon it manual training in its various forms, it will do far more than it has hitherto to fit our youth for an upright, industrious life. I asked John Bright, when at Rochdale last June, whether he attributed the decrease of criminals in the United Kingdom solely to the superior prison system of his country. He said, No, but rather to the increase of the agencies for securing a good education for the once neglected part of the population, as by the "Board Schools," to the growing efficiency of the Sunday-schools, to Bands of Hope, Orphanages, and all those institutions that preventive work has called into existence. Along these lines we can operate even far more successfully than heretofore. The report of manual training in common schools, made to the New York Board of Education, declares that the leading purpose of such training in European countries is "to foster industrial skill and to produce specialists, artisans, in order to advance the interests which manufacturing nations have in domestic and foreign trade," and adds, "It is admissible into our schools only as a means of general, not special, education." But I query if this is altogether correct. If manual training, general and specific, would develop a greater respect and taste for manual labor, increase the aptitude and power for industrial life, then it has to do with the prevention of pauperism and crime. And, if such training has not only disciplinary, but utilic advantages, it surely ought to be adopted by the State, and in this way better trained minds and enlarged bread-winning powers be secured for the rising generations.

Immediately at the close of the Franco-German war, manual train-

ing was established in all the elementary schools of Paris; and in the larger provincial cities apprenticeship schools were also founded, to supply the less general custom of apprenticeship and provide a progressive system of workshop instruction, combined with an elementary literary education, and extending over a period of three years. Pupils from these schools are competent at once to gain a living as carpenters, locksmiths, painters, designers, etc., and to enter one of the higher technical schools, now so numerous in France, to be trained as foremen, superintendents, or engineers. By thus fostering and encouraging the highest industrial and artistic capabilities of the masses of the working classes, France has measurably freed herself from the curse of pauperism. The Austrian government relieved distress among the peasant women and girls in a certain district, not by raising a fund to be doled out to them, but by furnishing instruction in designing and lace-making in connection with the Vienna Art School to large numbers of this class. They returned home, became teachers of their friends and neighbors; and a marked improvement in the condition of the people ensued, and a new era of prosperity was by their own industry brought in. The poor were helped to help themselves by augmented skill and opportunity.

The New York report already referred to recommends the introduction into the school curriculum of carpenter work or the use of wood-working tools for boys, modelling in clay for boys and girls, construction work in paper and pasteboard and other suitable material for boys and girls, drawing to scale for boys and girls, sewing for girls, and also cooking. These branches they recommend to be taught in the regular grammar and primary school buildings, and time secured for them by certain excisions from the studies now pursued in the various grades. In this way, we will educate our youth to care for themselves, and provide against their inability to earn their own livelihood. This accomplishes two things: it dignifies manual labor and trains every youth in the rudiments, at least, of some industrial calling. That forestalls the inefficiency which is so often the occasion of pauperism and the provocative of crime. The disciplinary influence of such training all our foremost educators recognize, while the utilitarian aspects have long been evident. The influence of such an institution as the Wilson Industrial School of New York reaches a class of children else neglected, and through them have homes been transformed and the character of family life been altered for the better. It is the pushing of all schemes of moral and industrial education that is now demanded. Our modern phi-

lanthropy needs to become more and more constructive and comprehensive. We must not expend all our energies in saving those who have fallen. We owe something to those who are on the edge of the precipice, something to those who, by timely guidance and wise training, we can fit for a moral and useful life. As philanthropists and reformers, we have much to do with all those agencies which promise to imbue youth with noble ideals and strengthen them to resist the influences calculated to lead them astray. Prisons are grand institutions and necessary, and we have yet much to learn in reference to how they shall be constructed and administered; but schools are grander, which deal with young life before hopelessly warped and mastered by vicious propensities. The kindergartens, the kitchen garden, industrial and technical schools, are the best investments society can make. Life is too precious to be wasted; and those born to a lot of temptation and freighted from the start with every disadvantage call loudest for our sympathy and help, and it is in redeeming such that we lessen the criminal class, and make useful members of society of those who else would become pensioners on its charity or the inmates of the penal institutions which crime has made necessary, and the support of which is a growing burden on the body politic.

MORAL EDUCATION.

BY ALBERT S. WHITE.

One of the most important features in the elevation and education of children who have been abandoned is to secure control of them at the earliest possible time. This class of children, in many instances, is taken from among the lowest and most degraded people. They come into the institution frequently in a condition of abject misery, and it is hardly possible to portray the same as it really is. These unhappy children, through neglect and utter abandonment, appear to be mental and physical wrecks; and reorganization seems, in consequence, a great task. The instructors must go to work upon these frail pieces of mortality in pretty much the same manner as the potter does upon the unformed piece of clay. The mind, temper, and other attributes of the child must be moulded and fashioned, and cultivated as a farmer would cultivate a barren ridge or peak of land. The physical condition must be improved, in order that there may be a basis upon which to work. Morals, then, may be planted, and take

root and grow. The intellectual faculties will then soon bud and blossom, and in due time bring forth fruit for the harvest time.

Three years of training of little outcasts have rewarded us with the brightest gems of childhood. Father Hugo, a true follower of his divine Master, taught this lesson more than five hundred years ago. "Pardon, blessed Jesus!" exclaims his attendant Adam, "the unhappy soul of him who tells the story! When I saw my master touch those bloated and livid faces of victims to the plague, when I saw him kiss the bleared eyes or eyeless sockets, I shuddered with disgust. But Hugo said to me that these afflicted ones were flowers of paradise, pearls in the coronet of the eternal King, waiting for the coming of their Lord, who in his own time would change their forlorn bodies into the likeness of his own glory."

It is Bulwer, if I remember, who suggested that there were two lives to each of us, gliding on at the same time, scarcely connected with each other,—the life of our actions, the life of our minds,—the external and the inward history; the movements of the frame, the deep and ever restless workings of the heart; they who have loved know that there is a diary of the affections, which we might keep for years without having occasion even to touch upon the exterior surface of life, our busy occupations, the mechanical progress of our existence; yet by the one we are judged, the first is never known. History reveals men's deeds, men's outward characters, but not themselves. There is a secret self that hath its own life rounded by a dream, unpenetrated, unguessed.

Frederick Froebel was a great innovator upon methods for the education of the young. His system of kindergartens is equally applicable to a moral and intellectual education. The deeper one goes into this question, the stronger becomes the conviction that the date of the introduction of the kindergarten was the year of jubilee for many thousands of little ones. Wherever established, pedantry and the pernicious practice of crowding and overloading the young with useless studies has been pushed aside. Where the kindergarten grows there is no demand for Goldsmith's village school-master.

Froebel inclined to the belief that the moral motives, or the dictates of what is called moral instinct, exercise an extremely small influence over the progress of men, and that there is nothing to be found in the world which has undergone so little change as those great dogmas of which moral systems are composed. That to do good to others; to sacrifice for their benefit your own wishes; to

love your neighbor as yourself ; to forgive your enemies ; to restrain your passions ; to honor your parents ; to respect those set over you,—and a few others,—are the sole essentials of morals, but that they may have been known for thousands of years, and that nothing new has been added to them by all the homilies and text-books which moralists and theologians have been able to produce ; that, on the other hand, intellectual systems have not been stationary, but have changed and adjusted themselves to a growing civilization, and have shown an activity and capacity for adaptation to surrounding circumstances. Hence, Froebel cleared away the undergrowth and overgrowth of prejudice and superstition which environed the education of the young, and commenced to work upon the intellect first, and subsequently on the moral principle. By thus uniting the two parts, the greater will be the harmony ; and the more accurately the means are adapted to the end, the more completely will the scheme of life be accomplished. It is this inner life that is claimed by advanced minds to be the real life ; without it there can be nothing beautiful in this world.

Children who are inspired by sentiments of love and esteem for others, through the training of the kindergarten, expand intellectually, and are soon able to comprehend what is called morals.

In view, therefore, of the suggestions made, it is perhaps best that we should not adhere too closely to the actual, to the cold facts which lie about us.

Hence, in the moral education of the young, would it not be well to encourage and excite the imaginative powers of the mind ? Our boys and girls, in connection with the other processes of education, are trained in landscape and flower gardening ; and, their perceptions of natural beauty being thus sharpened, they seek expression in music and verse. Beauty, that flowering virtue, expands the sentiment. It makes the rough gentle, and gives the coward heart. It makes the boy feel that he is something. He is a man. He is a soul. To the girl, it is a glimpse of that beautiful life of which the poets of all ages have ever sung.

XI.

Provision for the Feeble-minded.

THE CARE AND TRAINING OF FEEBLE-MINDED CHILDREN.

BY F. M. POWELL, M.D.

It is not the object of this paper to attempt a full discussion of any one branch of this subject. If, in reproducing facts and methods previously presented to the Conference, it shall be the means of increasing your interest in the direction of inquiry and action pertaining to this work, its purpose will have been accomplished.

The innumerable forms or types of defective mentality congregated in institutions for the care and training of the feeble-minded suggest the propriety of referring to the definitions of idiocy, imbecility, and dementia. Esquirol is referred to as being the first medical writer approaching accuracy in defining idiocy. He says: "Idiocy is not a disease, but a condition in which the intellectual faculties are never manifested, or have never been developed sufficiently to enable the idiot to acquire such an amount of knowledge as persons of his own age, and placed in similar circumstances with himself, are capable of receiving. Idiocy commences with life. What they are from the first they are doomed to be during the period of their existence."

Imbecility is a term used to denote a minor degree of mental deficiency than idiocy. In comparing dementia and idiocy, the writer observes: "In one case, the individual is deprived of advantages which he formerly enjoyed. The other has always been in a condition of want and misery."

The superintendents of American institutions for feeble-minded persons, in their session of 1878, submitted the following: "Idiocy and imbecility are conditions in which there is a want of natural or harmonious development of the mental, active, and moral powers of the individual affected, usually associated with some visible defect

or infirmity of the physical organization or with functional anomalies, expressed in various forms and degrees of disordered vital action. There is frequently defect or absence of one or more of the special senses, always irregular or uncertain volition, and dulness or absence of sensibility and perception."

Whatever may be the most accurate defining term, modern usage is adopting the more popular term, "Feeble-minded," to include all types or grades of mental, moral, and physical inaccuracies characterizing this class of defectives, from the profound idiot up to individuals possessing attributes but little below the normal standard of human intelligence. This term is used, being more agreeable to parents and relatives of the afflicted. An acceptable classification of the varied phases of the feeble-minded is fully as difficult to determine as a definition. Reference to this will be briefly considered subsequently.

What the conditions of this class must have been prior to the earliest records of attempts to ameliorate their condition we can only infer from scraps of history and a knowledge of the life of many of them to-day, without public or parental protection. The history of earlier ages seems to indicate that the condition of the defective classes must have been freighted with greater neglect and consequent misery than can be found anywhere at the present time.

The lot of the idiot must have been indeed a solitary one, as indicated by the term used to designate them, except in the recognition of the efforts of devoted mothers, clinging with maternal affection to their blighted progeny, or with a few who fortunately possessed a degree of wit sufficient to play the rôle of a professional jester, or, being marked with hideous deformities, were sought as prizes by tyrants and rulers, which at least secured for them food and raiment.

As understood by primitive definitions, it was generally accepted that these beings must carry their infirmities for life, without hope of improvement. As the rubbish of humanity, they were neglected, and left to subsist with animals or perish from want and exposure.

Passing from the unwritten record of these lives, we find that it was about the beginning of the present century that public and private tests began to be made, analyzing the nature of idiots, whether from scientific or philanthropic motives is immaterial, since successful results followed. The seed was planted and germinated. Although apparently dormant for a quarter of a century, the leaven of Christian philanthropy lifted the environing prejudices of these darkened minds; and from this time on both public and private schools began to be established in Europe and America for their benefit.

The initial efforts for this class appear to have been especially aimed in the direction of education, notwithstanding the per cent. of lower grades must have been as great as we find it now, appealing to the deepest sympathies of humanity.

As yet, comparatively few were ready to accept the experimental conclusions of these early tests. Hence the necessity and wisdom of selecting only the most suitable types of imbeciles for the primitive schools, that their improvement might more aptly be developed, thereby more readily securing the attention, confidence, and support of the people.

In accord with this view, we find the organic laws governing the schools in Massachusetts and New York rejecting epileptics, paralytics, and others properly belonging to the asylum wards, explicitly avoiding custodial charges, so prominently considered in our institutions to-day. It is due, however, that these pioneer workers be credited with early recognizing the claims of the non-improvable, as indicated by some of their earlier reports.

At the present time, with a knowledge of the extensive provision for the defective classes and the experience of forty years in caring for the feeble-minded, it is not easy to realize the hopelessness with which efforts to better their condition were regarded by the people and scientists at the period when Drs. Seguin, Wilbur, and Howe commenced their labors, respectively at Bicêtre in France and Barre and South Boston in Massachusetts.

Gradually the work progressed, being recognized and encouraged not only by the patrons of schools and medical opinion, but by legislative bodies, first in Massachusetts and New York, followed by Pennsylvania in 1853 and other States at later intervals. In all, we now find thirteen institutions supported by public appropriations and caring for more than three thousand of these ungifted children.

Thus we find very firmly established the claims or rights of another branch of the large army of dependants to be fostered by our various commonwealths, numbering, as indicated by the census of 1880, in the United States 76,895, "of which 2,429 were in training-schools, 1,141 in hospitals for the insane, 5,429 in almshouses, 241 in benevolent institutions, and 41 in jails, leaving a remainder of 67,200 at home or in private care," regarding which Mrs. C. W. Brown says, "where, if properly cared for, the duty of society ceases. But, as it has been found necessary to enact laws for the protection of young children from abuse and neglect in their own homes, so should these life-long children be protected, when necessary. In the homes of the

very poor, society must always protect itself, lest these weak-minded paupers become criminals or the begetters of criminals.

"The duty of first educating the educable is no longer a question; and such schools, as proved above, must be especially organized, with preparatory or trial departments, that every one may have a chance. But after this education, reducing the aggregate as we may by retaining in each institution all graduates needed as helpers, returning to their homes those suitable, and distributing in the private houses those capable, there still remains an indefinite number, largely of the unimprovable, to be provided for."

Having briefly referred to the history of the early efforts in the reclamation of this branch of defectives, we are brought directly to the consideration of their condition and methods adopted for their care and training at the present time.

Recurring again to the defining terms in use, we find that idiocy, generically used, covers the whole range referred to, but is frequently used specifically to denote only the lower forms; while imbecility has reference to the higher grades and dementia to a class having at some period subsequent to birth, lost their mental power. Comparatively few of the latter find their way into our wards. This I understand to be the more popular idea of distinction.

Here we are forced to say that so far we have no scientific classification wholly acceptable. The most desirable one is that which assists most in prognosis and treatment, and is based on etiology. But not enough is yet known of the multiple causes to complete a classification on this basis, neither has there been sufficient pathological work done nor clinical observation noted to group from either of these headings.

Classification from a psychological point has been submitted, based on the phenomena or external features of idiocy, and is therefore imperfect. Dr. Seguin very ably supports his theory for a classification based on physiological principles; while Dr. Ireland presents strong reasons for the distinctions he makes, from pathological causes. Either of these would require a lengthy paper to properly consider them.

The classifications generally adopted are from necessity based upon the requirements of the inmates and facilities at our disposal more than from scientific distinctions. The majority of institutions make two general divisions,—the school and industrial department and custodial or asylum division, the former including children who are susceptible of mental and moral improvement. In the latter will

be found unimprovables, collected from the lower forms of idiocy and imbecility, often complicated with epilepsy, paralysis, and other physical infirmities common to the lower grades.

The range of capacity characterizing the pupils in the educational department may be almost as varied as their number, each possessing an individuality; but, in a school with two hundred or more children, a satisfactory gradation of classes can be made, by leaving a remnant, possessing more than ordinary peculiarities or eccentricities, to be assigned to special classes for instruction through individual methods. In the graded division, class training is resorted to, more especially in groups made up of pupils nearest the normal standard of intellect, individual methods being more necessary as we approach the lower grades.

Where feeble minds exist, we conclude that it is dependent upon some physical imperfection, either congenital or acquired; and, while it may be beyond our power to fully develop or restore these deficiencies, we may, by a careful analysis of these conditions, determine to what extent medical or educational means may be applied. We can then intelligently direct our efforts in remedying the abnormal condition.

In the ratio that the child possesses the attributes of normal persons, so far we adopt the usual methods practised in common schools. Hence you will find in all our institutions for this class pupils being taught the elementary branches of the English language with a fair degree of success. But, says Dr. Wilbur, in one of his reports, "physical training will form the basis of all well-directed efforts for the education of idiots." That is, through bodily training, or, as Dr. Seguin terms it, "physiological education,"—mentality acquired through the medium of the senses. For this reason gymnastic and kindergarten exercises enter largely into our training-schools, not so much for physical benefits as a means of mental discipline. Through this medium, the most valued attention and imitation lessons are impressed.

The lack of power of attention is very prominent, and requires numerous devices to reach the varied degrees of deficiency in this respect. As aids to stimulate the birth and growth of this faculty, kindergarten and object lessons are liberally utilized. All through the school training, mechanical means constitute a reliable factor for developing the special senses. The simplest kind of labor, with many, offers valuable lessons in fixing the attention and inculcating will power over the defective nervous organizations so uniformly present.

As stated previously, some are marked with such idiosyncrasies as to require more than ordinary attention. Their mental and moral characteristics are queries not readily solved. One type are termed moral imbeciles by the profession, but by the public are looked upon as vicious or wicked beings, because of their tendency to commit criminal and moral offences. There is a lack of proper moral impulse, or a perversion of the sense of right and wrong. This class of boys and girls is a source of great anxiety and trouble to parents and others with whom they may come in contact. The cunningness displayed in gratifying their unnatural propensities could scarcely be acquired. They apparently consummate their designs instinctively, with no manifestation of feeling for others, seeking only means and opportunity to indulge their vicious inclinations.

Some show extraordinary aptitude in certain directions, displaying a fair degree of intellectual ability, yet appear to be wholly incapable of comprehending the effect of their conduct, although repeatedly resulting in their disfavor. Their capacity being enlisted in gratifying their present inclinations, they fail to analyze consequences liable to follow. When in trouble, they are penitent enough, or appear to be so, and make solemn promises to reform, only to repeat the same offences again at the first opportunity.

What to do with them is the question. If not interrupted while young, their life will be a record of crime, as the tendency is for them to fall more deeply into vice. If taken young and surrounded by proper influences and discipline, where their vicious propensities will be intercepted and checked and their better tendencies fostered and encouraged, they may at least pass the formative period of life safely, leaving them with a fairer prospect of self-control the remainder of their lives. Dr. Kerlin says of them: "Such children, although often precocious in the power to acquire school learning, should be withdrawn from the community before they reach crime age, and are best cared for under the discipline of institutions for the idiotic and feeble-minded."

There are numerous psychological puzzles to be found among the feeble-minded, some of them termed by Dr. Langdon Down "*idiot savants*." Examples of this character will serve to illustrate: J. S., admitted to the Iowa Institution in 1883, aged twelve. His faculty for remembering dates and names is unusually developed. Will state accurately the date of visits and names of all who visit the institution and converse with him, naming the day of the week, month, and year of previous visits. In the shoe-shop where he works, he

can tell the time when shoes for inmates have been made or repaired, although the work had been done years before; will calculate dates with astonishing rapidity, extending into the past or future; can draw a map of the United States, with boundary lines of all the States and Territories, in three minutes' time; learned the manual for deaf-mutes in less than two hours' time while at work in the shop; when asked how he calculates or remembers, almost invariably answers, "I don't know."

W. B., companion in the shoe-shop with J. S., exhibits a degree of mechanical ingenuity beyond normally balanced faculties; will take apart complicated machinery and put it together correctly, succeeding with first efforts as well as by repeated trials. An intimation or illustration of a piece of mechanism wanted will be readily executed by him with surprising accuracy, although never having seen or heard of it before.

These boys are successful shoemakers in our shop. They are "self-supporting, but not self-controlling." Visitors are sometimes impressed with the belief that prodigies of this character are wrongfully detained.

In the July number of the *Alienist and Neurologist*, I find a selection on this subject by Dr. Down, illustrating examples of anomalous development of some of the faculties of the mind, from which I quote:—

Extraordinary memory is often met with associated with very great defect of reasoning power. A boy came under observation who, having once read a book, could evermore remember it. He would recite all answers in *Magall's Questions* without an error, giving in detail the number in the astronomical divisions with greatest accuracy. I discovered, however, that it was simply a process of verbal adhesion. I once gave him Gibbon's *Rise and Fall of the Roman Empire* to read. This he did; and, on reading the third page, he skipped a line, found out his mistake, and retraced his steps. Ever after, when reciting from memory the stately periods of Gibbon, he would, on coming to the third page, skip the line, and go back and correct the error with as much regularity as if it had been part of the regular text. Later on, his memory for recent reading became less tenacious; but his recollection of his earlier readings never failed him. Another boy can tell the tune, words, and number of nearly every hymn in *Hymns, Ancient and Modern*. Often memory takes the form of remembering dates and past events. Several children under my observation have had this faculty in an extraordinary degree. One boy never fails to be able to tell the name and address of every confectioner's shop that he visited in London,—and they have been numerous,—and can readily tell the date of every visit.

Another can tell the time of arrival of all the children at the institution, and could supply accurate records in relation to it, if needed. Another knows the home address of every resident who comes under his observation, and they are by no means few.

In one of the earlier reports of Dr. George Brown, superintendent of the private institution for the education of feeble-minded, located at Barre, Mass., I find the following concluding remarks on this subject:—

There is a truth taught by these anomalies, which all teachers would do well to consider; *i.e.*, every undue culture of an intellectual faculty or a bodily power to the neglect of correlative faculties and powers is a fatal mistake, tending to the increase of insanity and deficiency. The possessor of a single faculty abnormally developed to the suppression or extinction of other faculties equally essential to symmetrical culture, though he may be styled a genius, is as truly a monster as any dwarfed being whose huge head perhaps so o'er-tops the body as to stunt its growth, and cripple forever its power of locomotion.

If we would aid in restoring the lost harmonies of the universe, we must seek for ourselves and our children that uniform culture of the whole being in its triune nature, physical, mental, and moral, which in its completeness shall conform to the lines of perfect symmetry without excrescence or depression. When every man and woman secures such culture, transmitting it to their seed after them, there will be no further need of hospitals for bodily or mental diseases nor prisons for moral offenders.

Returning to the methods in use for the mental culture and discipline of the feeble-minded, I cannot enlarge upon what has already been presented to the Conference by our committees at previous meetings. The importance of increasing and combining manual training with the daily routine of school-work is being encouraged, not only for the purpose of fitting our wards for degrees of usefulness, but as a factor in developing and increasing mental capacity. We have already learned that it is principally through the special senses that intellect is aroused and quickened in these imperfect children. They cannot deal successfully with the abstract. Work lessons, to cultivate the hand, eye, and ear, are indispensable as a part of their school training proper. We seek, then, to organize and utilize industries adapted to their capacity. Hence you will find connected with these schools the shoe-shop, broom-shop, carpenter shop, brush and mat making, chair factory, farm and garden work, wood-carving, hammered brass and copper work, classes in drawing, fancy and common needle-work, domestic duties, orchestra and band

classes, all in the line of productive labor, leaving the participants qualified partially, at least, to support themselves, and with ability to assist in the care of their less fortunate companions.

As an indication of the result of this course of training, the following recent analysis of the improvement made by 195 inmates in the school department at the Iowa Institution at Glenwood is submitted: 28.3 per cent. made active progress in learning, 44.6 per cent. made medium advancement, while 21.5 per cent. improved very slowly, a part of the remaining 5.6 appear to have remained stationary, while others retrograded, physically and mentally, requiring their transfer to the asylum wards. Structural changes in the organs of the body, more especially the nerve centres, had left irreparable lesions.

Out of 68 dismissals, during a period of two years, 82 per cent. of them are recorded as improved.

To the extent, then, that this training has tended to elevate these wards of the State, by having corrected improper habits, increased their will power, developed a sense of moral obligation, quickened the intellectual faculties, and left them with a knowledge of how to perform some kind of useful labor, so far the public may be said to have bestowed all that is required of it, leaving them as near the normal sphere of mankind as their capacity permits. But the number becoming self-supporting independent of supervision is small, ranging probably from 10 to 20 per cent.

This leaves the greater portion needing lifelong guardianship. To what extent is the public under further obligations to those requiring life direction? We leave an opinion to be expressed hereafter.

But this analysis has reference to the more favorable subjects. What can be done for the asylum charges gathered from the lower forms of idiocy and imbecility, many of whom are dependent upon others to anticipate and supply their most simple wants? In this division will be found the characterizing features of idiocy, as understood in a specific sense. Here also are found shades of disability, numerous as in the school department. In this family, we find the profound idiot, who, having eyes, sees not; ears, but hears nothing; neither tastes, smells, manifests sensation, nor recognizes articulate sounds, though in possession of all the organs governing the senses, — apparently in a healthy condition, but lacking in sensorial power to interpret impressions; a being wrapped in the solitude of unconsciousness, though in possession of all the inlets of knowledge, but leading to an undeveloped brain power. Associated with these deficiencies may be found pathological anomalies: the head may be unnaturally large or small, supported by an abnormally large or dwarfed body.

Here are the sthenic forms with undue nervous impulses, the asthenic with a want of normal activity, aggravated cases of epilepsy, and the helpless paralytic. Others with partial loss of the senses. The motor functions may be abnormal, causing defective co-ordination, interfering with purposive acts, but tending in the direction of automatic movements. It is with these marked forms that medical and hygienic means are largely required to assist in correcting existing vices. They are taught some of the simpler drills in calisthenic exercises, and learn to perform some kind of labor, the rate and extent of development being very slow and limited. It is with this character of inmates that wants must be created, that development may follow.

The influence of directed exercise, work and habit training, favorably affects them. They are brighter and happier for it. Although termed "unimprovable," there are but few who will not admit of improvement. "Not one in a thousand," says Dr. Seguin, "but what is susceptible to treatment; not one in a hundred who has not been made more happy and healthy." Occasionally, transfers are made from this department to the better grades.

The public in extending her mantle of charity to these, the lowest and most helpless of mankind, is not only aiding and protecting suffering humanity, but relieving the community of an exhausting burden that in many families is overtaxing the parents and preventing prosperity and care of other members of the family.

Pennsylvania is providing generously for this class; while Massachusetts, Ohio, Iowa, and Minnesota are extending the same protection.

Associated with the custodial plan, we have provision for adult imbeciles, a large per cent. of whom fail to possess adequate mental or moral convictions to cope successfully with the realities of life, and are unfortunate in being without guardianship of kindred ties to direct them. This brings up the social problem,— "What to do with them?" Although education may have done much to ameliorate their condition, but few can rise out of a condition of dependence. They may become self-supporting, with friendly guardianship, but not self-controlling. Under the direction of kindly persons, they will labor successfully as assistants in household duties and as helpers in the care of the more dependent ones. Most of the older institutions are successfully testing the plan of providing separate buildings for their constantly accumulating adult wards and directing the labor of the males in farming and shop work.

New York has made provision for adult females independent of the

parent institution. When we consider their life record, as shown by enfeebled and illegitimate progeny, consequent upon want of protection from dangers to which they are exposed in refuges not provided with facilities for separating the sexes, the wisdom of this plan at once commends itself to a thoughtful public. Pennsylvania adds to the building at Elwyn a "Girls' Cottage" for eighty of this class. Ohio provides liberally for these divisions, aggregating over seven hundred inmates. Illinois follows with an appropriation for a building to be used as a home for one hundred girls.

In the practical results following the advance step taken in New York, in providing permanent and separate homes for her "*men and women children*," may be found a solution of the question, "What to do with them?"

To explain more fully: Institutions extending a permanent home and supervision to adult wards have either added departments for this purpose or built "detached cottages" on the grounds near the original structure, making the division for these and asylum charges a part of the one system under the same management, with its families participating in such affairs of the institution as may be suitable. The various entertainments, exercises, and industries connected with the several departments afford recreation, discipline, and employment for them during life.

In connection with efforts to modify the infirmities of idiocy, cause and prevention merit more than passing notice. Data on these subjects are being tabulated by more experienced workers, to be presented, I trust, hereafter.

With this casual reference to a subject worthy of more careful inquiry, we briefly conclude that the history of the experience in developing the condition and methods of care and training of the feeble-minded indicates fruitful results, beyond the sanguine expectations of the early devotees of this charity, not only in their central idea of education, but other phases of the work, more especially protection for life.

It cannot be expected that the maturest thinkers can have organized a system complete in detail and adapted to every emergency that time and change must develop; but that they built on a basis founded on the great and underlying principles of divine sympathy and compassion, to protect the "*weak and lowly*," no one will be inclined to question.

For the further care of this vast family, relying unconsciously on the strong to shield and protect its members, your deliberation, counsel, and assistance are solicited.

XII.

Minutes and Discussions.

SECRETARY'S REPORT.

FIRST SESSION.

Omaha, Neb., Thursday night, August 25, 1887.

The Fourteenth Annual Session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction began on Thursday night, July 25, 1887, in Boyd's Opera House, Omaha, Neb. Music was furnished by the Omaha Musical Union Orchestra. The Conference was called to order at 8 P.M. by the President, H. H. Giles. The chairman of the Local Committee, Mr. J. A. Gillespie, presided during the opening exercises. Prayer was offered by Rev. Robert Doherty, D.D., of Omaha. In addition to the welcome given by Mr. Gillespie (page 1), addresses were made by Hon. John M. Thayer (page 2), Governor of Nebraska; Hon. W. J. Broatch (page 4), mayor of Omaha; ex-Gov. A. Saunders (page 5); Hon. John M. Thurston (page 6); and Mr. E. Rosewater (page 8), representing the Chamber of Commerce.

Responses were made by Fred. H. Wines, of Illinois (page 9), and F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts (page 12).

The President's annual address was made by Hon. H. H. Giles (page 14).

Adjourned at 10 P.M.

SECOND SESSION.

Friday morning, August 26.

The Conference met at 9 A.M., in the Exposition Building, the President in the chair. Prayer was offered by Rev. Charles A. Savidge, of Omaha.

Mr. L. C. Storrs, of Michigan, was elected secretary in the place of Rev. O. C. McCulloch, absent in Europe.

On motion of PHILIP C. GARRETT, it was voted that a Business Committee, of which A. E. Elmore should be chairman, be appointed,

whose duties should be to consider and report upon all resolutions offered and such other business pertaining to the sessions of this Conference as should be referred to it.

This Business Committee was afterwards announced as follows: A. E. Elmore, of Wisconsin; William J. Sawyer, of Pennsylvania; W. Alex. Johnson, of Illinois; Hiram S. Shurtleff, of Massachusetts; and H. R. Wells, of Minnesota.

On motion of WILLIAM P. LETCHWORTH, a committee of seven on Permanent Organization was appointed.

This committee was afterwards announced as follows: William P. Letchworth, of New York; M. McG. Dana, of Minnesota; Philip C. Garrett, of Pennsylvania; F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts; A. G. Byers, of Ohio; Fred. H. Wines, of Illinois; and J. A. Gillespie, of Nebraska.

On motion of W. P. LETCHWORTH, a committee was appointed to present suitable resolutions on the death of Mr. Barwick Baker, of Gloucester, England. The committee was appointed as follows: W. P. Letchworth, of New York; R. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio; and Fred. H. Wines, of Illinois.

On motion of H. H. HART, a Committee on Credentials was appointed, consisting of one person from each State and Territory represented, as follows: H. H. Hart, Minnesota, chairman; E. T. Dooley, California; Mrs. J. S. Sperry, Colorado; Dr. O. W. Archibald, Dakota; J. R. French, District of Columbia; F. H. Wines, Illinois; L. A. Barnett, Indiana; S. W. Pierce, Iowa; C. E. Faulkner, Kansas; A. G. Warner, Maryland; F. B. Sanborn, Massachusetts; L. C. Storrs, Michigan; Mrs. O. C. Dinsmore, Nebraska; Dr. C. S. Hoyt, New York; Dr. A. G. Byers, Ohio; Dr. R. W. Hill, Oregon; P. C. Garrett, Pennsylvania; A. O. Wright, Wisconsin.

The business of the day, reports from States, was then taken up, under the direction of the chairman of the committee, F. H. Wines. The reports presented were as follows: New York, by Dr. C. S. Hoyt (page 62); Wisconsin, by Dr. J. H. Vivian (page 70); Michigan, by L. C. Storrs (page 52); Ohio, by Gen. R. Brinkerhoff; Massachusetts, by H. S. Shurtleff (page 48); Oregon, by Dr. R. W. Hill (page 65); Nebraska, by J. A. Gillespie (page 58); Minnesota, by H. H. Hart (page 53); Illinois, by J. D. Scouller (page 33) and W. A. Johnson; Pennsylvania, by Cadwalader Biddle (page 66); Indiana, by L. A. Barnett (page 35); Kansas, by C. E. Faulkner (page 44).

Mr. A. O. WRIGHT called attention to the introduction of the cotage plan in the new Soldiers' Home of Wisconsin.

Dr. A. B. Ancker was asked to supplement the report from Minnesota. He said:—

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,—The city of St. Paul and the county of Ramsey, which I have the honor to represent at this Conference, although comprising a comparatively young commonwealth, are, I believe, second to none in the character of their public institutions, in their liberality in dealing with the poor and needy, and in the methods they employ in the distribution of charity generally. All the charities for the support of which the citizens of St. Paul and the county in which it is situated are taxed, and which are dispensed to persons as city and county charges, are under the immediate supervision of the Board of Control, a body represented by Mr. Isaac P. Wright and myself in this convention. The board is composed of three gentlemen, who under the law are appointed by the district judges of Ramsey County; and, in this connection, I would remark that the office of district judge in our county is practically a life office, and that the members of the board are appointed because of their personal fitness only, thus divorcing this important body absolutely from anything of a political character. Under the law creating the board, the members were appointed respectively for one, two, and three years, each one to be reappointed at the expiration of his term of three years at the discretion of the judges, thus leaving the board to-day as it was originally, with the exception of one member, who resigned early in his term. This board administers the affairs, audits the accounts, and supervises the City and County Hospital, the Almshouse, and Foundlings' Home. It also has the dispensation of all charities, whether in the shape of fuel, food, clothing, or medical aid. It also appoints the city and county physician and the superintendent of the poor-farm. The former is the surgeon in charge and the superintendent of the City and County Hospital, the attending physician at the Almshouse, the surgeon of the police department, and, together with his assistants, attends to those of the sick and wounded poor that are regarded as city and county charges. The City and County Hospital was organized some fifteen years ago. It was originally a private residence; but, with the addition of a wing built about four years ago and a small building recently erected for the care of such contagious diseases as are ordinarily received in a general hospital, there are in it accommodations for about eighty patients. Although at present laboring under many disadvantages, the institution has a future full of hope. By a recent act of legislature, a commission was appointed, and \$50,000 appropriated to begin the construction of a series of entirely new buildings. Already, our plans are ready for work,—plans that contemplate a plant that in detail, construction, and general adaptability will be second to no institution of a like character in the United States. When completed, about \$300,000 will have been expended. Within the enclosure occupied in part by the present institution, a building, to be known as the Foundlings' Home,

has just been finished, at a cost of \$10,000. Our intention is to use it for the reception of foundlings and other infants placed as charges on the city and county. Only temporarily will these little waifs be cared for there, we having in view the adoption of the methods now pursued in Massachusetts for the care of deserted infants. The new almshouse has but recently been erected and occupied. It cost about \$60,000. It is distant about four miles from the city, has a beautiful site, and has in connection with it a farm of about one hundred and sixty acres, very much of it under cultivation. It is a model building, with accommodations for one hundred and forty inmates. A superintendent and matron are in charge. The expenses of this institution last year were in round numbers \$14,000. This amount includes all expenses for permanent improvements. The daily average of inmates was thirty-four. The average cost per week, \$4.

At the hospital, six hundred and fifty-two patients were treated last year. The total expenditure, \$14,500. This also includes expenses for permanent improvements. The average daily number of patients was fifty. Average cost per week, \$4.40. The disbursements on account of outside aid, made at the office of the Board of Control, amounted to about \$15,000. No application to the board for relief receives final consideration until the paid agent of the board has thoroughly investigated the case and reported as to its worthiness.

Although we have faith in our system of administering, and in our methods of dispensing these charities, we come here for more light, believing we have much to learn, and at the same time to impart what information we have to those feeling the need of it. Next year we hope to come to you with a report that will tell you we have not been idling, that we have been keeping pace with this age of improvement in these matters.

The Very Rev. Dean Hart, of Colorado, formerly of London, England, was invited to address the Conference. He replied in a few words, expressing his pleasure at meeting with so many workers in the field of philanthropy and reform.

Rev. D. C. MILNER, of Kansas, asked to add a word to the report from that State. He was satisfied that the people are on the right road toward the suppression of crime and pauperism in the prohibitory work that they are doing in Kansas. He thought it a great mistake for young States to build schools and charitable institutions from the proceeds of licensing liquor saloons. He believed in wholly suppressing the liquor traffic.

A. G. WARNER, of Maryland, said that there had been some attempt in his State to push a bill creating a State Board; but, as it was found that it would only make berths for worn-out politicians, the matter was dropped. The largest part of the charitable work of Maryland is done by Baltimore. A large amount of money is ex-

pended in "boarding out" the indigent and dependent classes. The prisoners in the prisons and jails are idle. The Charity Organization Society proposes to secure some better legislation in regard to the suppression of street beggars. The State Prisoners' Aid Association does much of the work of supervising prisons and almshouses and keeping them respectable.

C. E. FAULKNER, of Kansas, said it was a matter of congratulation that the State of Kansas should have a delegate at this Conference; for, unless there were some such official relation, it would be hard for the Conference to realize what a splendid work the State of Kansas is doing in the way of charity and reform.

A telegram was read from Max Meyer, President of the Board of Trade, who had been called to New York, welcoming the Conference to Omaha.

A letter from the mayor of Lincoln was read, inviting the Conference to meet in that city on Saturday.

Adjourned at 12.15 P.M.

THIRD SESSION.

Friday night, August 26.

The Conference met at 8 P.M., the President in the chair.

On motion of Gen. BRINKERHOFF, a committee, consisting of one person from each State and Territory represented, was appointed to decide upon time and place of the next meeting of the Conference.

The following persons were subsequently appointed:—

Committee on Time and Place.—California, E. T. Dooley, San Francisco. Colorado, A. C. Sampson, Golden. Dakota, J. M. McBride, Aberdeen. District Columbia, J. M. French, Washington. Indiana, W. A. Fletcher, Indianapolis. Illinois, J. D. Scouller, Pontiac. Iowa, S. W. Pierce, Davenport. Kansas, C. E. Faulkner, Salina. Maryland, A. G. Warner, Baltimore. Massachusetts, H. S. Shurtleff, Boston. Michigan, J. J. Wheeler, East Saginaw. Nebraska, Mrs. Dinsmore, Omaha. New York, N. S. Rosenau, Buffalo. Ohio, Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, Mansfield. Oregon, Miss Helen Spaulding, Portland. Pennsylvania, Mahlon K. Paist, Philadelphia. Wisconsin, E. O. Holden, Baraboo. Minnesota, W. P. Murray, St. Paul.

The names of the Committee on Credentials were read (page 262).

The report of the Committee on State Boards of Charities was made by F. B. Sanborn, chairman (page 75).

DISCUSSION ON STATE BOARDS.

Mr. Elmore was invited to open the discussion.

MR. ELMORE.—The State of Wisconsin has a school for dependent children that has ninety inmates, and it has been overlooked in the report from that State. For twenty-one years, I was a manager of an industrial school for boys at Waukesha; and I have very grave doubts in my mind whether I ever did any good there. We kept the boys till they were twenty-one, and then turned them loose; and that was the end. We did, as individuals, look after them some; but, as for the State doing anything, it did not. We tried to get places for them, but most of the people did not want them. At the time, I thought I was doing a great deal of good; and I was very proud of the school, and labored zealously all those twenty-one years. As soon as the law was changed, and a board appointed to take care of all the institutions in the State, and the local boards were abolished, my occupation there was gone. They enacted a law at the same time to reduce the age to which boys might be kept to eighteen years. From eighteen to twenty-one is the crucial time in the life of every boy, when of all others they want parental authority, or some authority in lieu of that of the parent. But they turned them loose at eighteen, and the boys found their way to the State prison. As for the children sent from New York, I have the best evidence that they poison the atmosphere of the country places to which they are brought; and, until you have somebody appointed to look after them, they will go to the bad in a large majority of instances. I am rejoiced to know that in the State of Wisconsin we are trying the experiment of a school for dependent children, and that a State agent has been appointed to look after them when they are placed in homes.

MR. LETCHWORTH.—I would like Mr. Sanborn, if he will please do so, to further explain that the New York statute forbidding the commitment of dependent children to poorhouses gives, in the disposal of them, preference to the family over the institution.

MR. SANBORN.—Will not Mr. Letchworth make such an explanation himself? Surely, no one knows about this matter better than he does.

MR. LETCHWORTH. The New York State law requires that all healthy and intelligent children coming upon the public for support and care shall be provided for "in families, orphan asylums, or other appropriate institutions." In this order of citation, it will be seen that the family takes precedence; and officials are encouraged to put the child in a family as soon as it may suitably be placed there. In the State there are numerous benevolent organizations, largely composed of earnest women workers, who receive and train children, seek homes for them, and place them in families under careful official supervision. This is a most beautiful work; and our best method of disposing of the children seems to be to place them in the care of organizations of this kind, where an active "placing out" system is observed.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.—This is one of the most important subjects that we have to consider in this Conference, in view of the fact that we are on the border of these new States, upon which it will soon devolve as a duty to organize boards of charity. It is very important that they should not make a mistake in their organization at the beginning. While I agree, in the main, with the admirable report which has been made, yet upon one point, I think, all the members of boards of State charities will not coincide entirely. The State Board of Ohio has been in operation since 1867, with a short interval. It has supervision over corrections as well as over charities; for it has supervision not only of the great benevolent institutions for the insane, the blind, the deaf and dumb, and the poor, but also of correctional institutions, prisons, and jails. The members are unanimous in their opinion that our form of organization is the best possible, especially for a new State. We do not believe in conferring executive power upon the Board of State Charities. The desire of the people is to increase the power of the board; but our experience and conviction are unalterable, and we steadily refuse to accept increased power. The power of our board is a moral power. It has the power to go into its institutions and inspect them at all times, to study them, to fix uniform methods of keeping accounts, and to require reports. It can make special examinations and call for papers, if necessary; but that is all. If this power were increased, if we were given executive power and salaries, the usefulness of the board, in our judgment, would be destroyed. The moment you confer executive power or salaries, that moment you lower its influence by making positions on it desirable as a reward for political service; and its moral influence will be gone. Our board consists of six members, not more than three of whom can be from the same political party. It is, therefore, non-partisan. I have been a member for over ten years, and I have not seen the least scintilla of partisanship in it. The governor of the State is *ex-officio* chairman of the board, and that in effect gives us executive power, or all the power that is necessary, because the governor has all power; and, if we convince him that changes should be made in any institution, he has the power to make them. The usefulness of the board is everywhere acknowledged. In Ohio, we do not believe in the "coming system," according to Mr. Sanborn. You could not find one person in a thousand in Ohio who would agree that the pauper incurable insane should be separated from the others. We do not believe in the erection of any institution across whose portals you shall write, "Whoever enters here leaves hope behind."

Mr. SANBORN.—That being the case, why is your new asylum at Toledo provided with detached buildings for different classes of the insane, and, among others, a number of buildings for the chronic insane?

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.—We have no buildings at Toledo set aside and specially designated for chronic insane. The Toledo Asylum is a village of some forty separate buildings, and very likely some of

these buildings will be occupied exclusively by chronic insane, as are the wards of our ordinary asylums; but they will not be labelled as such. We accept the idea that there are large numbers of insane who are incurable, — probably sixty-five or possibly seventy-five per cent., —and we classify accordingly; but classification is one thing, and separation into an independent asylum for incurables is an entirely different thing, and one to which we object. The Toledo system admits of classification, with such changes from day to day as the varying condition of patients may require.

Mr. WRIGHT. — Gen. Brinkerhoff has stated what a board with advisory powers can do with reference to State institutions. Time will show whether it is well to add executive powers. In many of our States, where there are no State Boards of Charity, the system of inspection is carried out by legislative committees. Any one who has ever served on such a committee knows how inadequate such a visit is, owing specially to the frequent changes in members. A State board is really a standing committee, in which changes are made gradually, which has a history and a plan of work. That gives it moral power with the legislature. It is infinitely superior to the plan of visiting by a committee of the legislature. Poorhouses and jails should also come under the care of a State Board; for, in the aggregate, they have as many people in their keeping as the larger institutions and are more liable to abuses. The superintendents of county institutions should be advised with, thereby securing friendly co-operation. A great deal of good, in minor ways, can be accomplished by State Boards. They are actually doing this work: reducing the number of paupers in poorhouses by driving out able-bodied laborers, or calling the attention of the officers to the fact that such are there; having children placed in families or in proper institutions; finding places for such paupers as are able to support themselves, and thus reducing the taxes for supporting the poor.

One word as to the incurable insane. I know of no institution for the incurable insane. Several States — Massachusetts, New York, and Wisconsin — have institutions for the chronic insane, none for the incurable.

Mr. HART. — If you will look into the workings of any of the State Boards of Charities, it will be evident that they not only exercise an influence on the officers of institutions, but upon the whole line of legislation. The influence of such a board is far-reaching in this direction, and cannot be measured by words. Their influence, furthermore, has been one of the potent factors in the improvement of the treatment of the insane these past twenty years. It has revolutionized the methods of dealing with children, so that, instead of bringing them up in pauper institutions and asylums, they are now placed in homes or in temporary refuges. But how is it possible to secure State Boards? When this Conference met at Madison in 1882, Gov. Hubbard, of Minnesota, an intelligent student of these subjects, sent twenty-five of the best citizens of the State to attend. They catechized closely some of those familiar with the workings of the boards, and

then made up their minds that it was a necessity that there should be a State Board of Charities in Minnesota. Dr. Dana, who was of the number, went to the brightest editor in St. Paul, and taught him what a State Board was, referred him to authorities where he could inform himself as to them, and in this way the public was schooled to see how desirable it was that there should be such a board. The result was our Board of Corrections and Charities. If you wish to establish a State Board of Charities, let each person interested inform himself on the subject from the reports of the Committee on State Boards to the National Conference of Charities. Learn just what such a board is and how it ought to be organized. Then send to the secretaries of the different State Boards and ask for files of their reports. You will there see what has been accomplished, and the methods of their work, so that, when you come before a legislative committee, you will be able to answer the questions that will be asked. Make your governor know the advantage of such a board, and then, when you draw your bill, hedge it so that it will not get into politics. Get conservative men on your board. The Minnesota State Board goes on the theory that it can do more mischief in a week than it can remedy in five years. Many things that you would like to accomplish must wait till the time is ripe for you to move. Boards of charities must learn to exercise a great deal of patience, forbearance, and long suffering. Then be careful not to overdo things. Here is an institution with abuses that ought to be remedied. An ill-considered attack on that institution may cripple its usefulness for years. A good board will be a balance wheel, and will prevent such mistakes.

There is another thing. In these young States there is a tendency to say that, as they have only three or four institutions, they will wait till they have more before organizing a State Board. But the work of the board is far more important in the early years of a State than in its later years. I know of no work more worthy of the ambition of any man than to have a hand in the wise founding and establishing of the institutions of a great State. It is in this that the best work of your board will be done. It is lamentable to see how mistakes have been repeated for the last hundred years in the building and organizing of institutions, because there has been no one to take a broad view or to see what mistakes have been made in other States. Your State Board will go about visiting other States, learning the good things that they have introduced and learning how to avoid mistakes. If I could not have a State Board throughout the whole history of a State, I would have it in the early part rather than wait till the institutions have been created, and it is too late to remedy the evils that have grown up. I want to speak of one evil that should be avoided,—the evil of giving the location of an institution to the highest bidder, letting the town that will give the most to get an institution have it, without regard to railroad connections, proper drainage, or other important matters. A wise board will put a spoke in that wheel. The legislature of Illinois has forbidden the acceptance of any such bonus.

I had the honor recently of serving on a commission which located a new hospital for the insane in Minnesota. The law said that the commission might receive proposals for donations of land or money, but the commission voted unanimously not to invite or consider any such proposals. The board, of which W. P. Letchworth was a member, refused to receive or consider anything of the kind. We hope in our State never to let such abuses grow. Prevention is better than cure. It is for work of this kind that you want State Boards of Charities in Missouri, in Kansas, in Nebraska, and in Iowa.

Mr. WINES.—In my study of the laws of different States as to crime, pauperism, insanity, and other forms of social evil or misfortune, I have observed that the State Boards naturally fall into distinct groups, according to their several relations and functions.

For instance, some of them have direct executive or administrative powers. In Kansas, a single board of trustees has charge of all the State institutions. In Wisconsin, the institutions are governed by a similar board, known as the Board of Supervision. In Rhode Island, also, they are under a single board. These boards appoint the officers, receive and disburse the moneys appropriated to their use, and regulate all their affairs. But this special form of organization does not prevail in other States. And I may be permitted to remark that in our Proceedings we have omitted the Wisconsin Board of Supervision from the list of State Boards,—probably because we have included the Board of Charities and Reform; but both should be included. The Wisconsin Board of Supervision has the same right there as the Kansas and the Rhode Island Boards.

In certain States, again, they have "State" paupers, as in Massachusetts, where the entire charitable system is rooted in the complicated English laws of settlement, which have been transferred to American soil, and are, I think, a troublesome feature of the Massachusetts system. The same is true, in some measure, of the State of New York, where paupers who have no legal claim upon any locality for relief are chargeable to the State treasury. But in the West the laws are simpler. There a claim to relief rests upon the mere fact of residence for one year, or possibly not more than six months in one place. Now, where the English law prevails, or where a distinct class of "State" paupers is recognized and provided for, the first question as to any public beneficiary must be, "Who is responsible for his support?" If he has any local settlement, he is entitled to help from some county or town; but, if not, he falls into the category of paupers whose claim is on the State. The State, therefore, makes an appropriation for the maintenance of "State" paupers, which is disbursed by the State Board of Charities, who stand to the beneficiaries of the State somewhat in the relation of overseers of the poor, and exercise of necessity powers which are really executive in their nature. But in States which have no "State" paupers there is neither occasion nor temptation to confer upon the State Boards any executive powers or duties, properly so called.

I have noticed that in the Eastern States, particularly in New Eng-

land, a large space in the statutes is devoted to directions as to who shall pay the bills for the care and treatment of the unfortunate. The county, if it can do so, seeks to throw this expense upon the towns; or the towns upon the county; or one town upon another; or the towns or county, as the case may be, upon the State. It is like a game of base-ball, where each side tries to put the other out. But, where less stress is laid upon the laws of settlement, we are not so much concerned to see that the right person pays the bill as we are to have the work done, and done properly. In Minnesota, in Ohio, and in Illinois, the State institutions are open to all citizens of the State who need their benefits, free of any charge whatever. They are as free as the public schools. We consider, in the States which I have named, that our public charities are a system of compulsory insurance, under which every man pays his premium in the form of a tax; and, having paid the tax assessed against him, he is entitled to relief, in case of need, irrespective of his poverty or wealth. We charge a rich man no more for the care of his wife or daughter in a State institution for the insane than we charge a pauper. The moment that the State takes charge of a pauper, he ceases to be a pauper.

In discussing the work of State Boards, accordingly, we must take into account the different systems adopted by different States. What is true of one State is not true of another. Here, in Nebraska, you have an obstacle in the way of the creation of a State Board, which does not exist in any State east of Nebraska, though your system has been copied by some States or Territories lying west of you. You have a constitutional provision* which makes your State officials a board of control over your State institutions, notwithstanding that they are selected for political reasons, are closely identified with party politics, and may be supposed not to know—at least, they are not required to know—anything about the proper care of criminals, paupers, or lunatics. If a worse system of organization and management in theory, whatever it may be in practice, can be found on the earth, I do not know where. Certainly, it is the worst in the United States. I think it my duty to tell you the truth in love, but not because I wish to criticise your constitution or your State officers, or the actual administration of your institutions. If you have good institutions, it is in spite of, and not in consequence of, your system. But, whenever you have a new constitutional convention, you should see to it that this provision is not re-enacted, because other States will follow your lead in a wrong direction. I do not agree with Mr. Sanborn in his closing sentence; for it seems to me that he approves and recommends, without sufficient consideration, a system which ought rather to be denounced and forsaken.

And now I must go for Gen. Brinkerhoff. We have in my State what he would call a partisan board, because every member of it

* Article V, § 19: "The Commissioner of Public Lands and Buildings, the Secretary of State, Treasurer, and Attorney-General shall form a board, which shall have general supervision and control of all the buildings, grounds, and lands of the State, the State prison, asylums, and all other institutions thereof, except those for educational purposes, and shall perform such duties and be subject to such rules and regulations as may be prescribed by law."

belongs to the Republican party. But we have a non-partisan administration of our State institutions; while Ohio, with its non-partisan board, has an absolutely partisan administration of its State institutions.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF. — How does it happen, then, that in some of your institutions, notably in the Southern Penitentiary of Illinois, there has been an entire revolution in the management, on account of partisan politics?

Mr. WINES. — I dispute the statement. I think that Gen. Brinkerhoff has been misinformed. In the Southern Penitentiary, he will find that nearly one-half of the subordinate officers and guards are Democrats. Our partisan board does not know what the politics of the employees, or even of the officials, in many instances, really is. Sitting within the sound of my voice is Dr. Dewey, superintendent of the Kankakee Insane Asylum. Last year, a party of gentlemen from New York and Massachusetts visited his institution; and I met them there. They asked me, "To what extent does Illinois suffer from politics in its charitable institutions?" "Very little," I replied; and, turning to Dr. Dewey, I said to him, "How many employees have you appointed since the opening of this hospital?" "About a thousand." "And how many of them were appointed at the solicitation or suggestion of any member of the legislature, of either party, or that of any prominent politician?" "Not to exceed a dozen," he said. How will you secure a more non-political management of a public institution than that? I agree with Gen. Brinkerhoff that it is wise to have more than one political party represented on every board which has charge of any charitable, penal, or reformatory institution, but not for the reason which he assigns. I do not think that the history of Ohio will bear out the assertion that a non-partisan board is a guarantee of non-partisan management of State institutions. And I differ from him *toto cœlo* in his declaration that the governor should be *ex officio* a member of the State Board, and hold the balance of power between the Republicans and Democrats associated with him. This is, however, no reflection on the Ohio Board. In several respects, I regard that board as the best in the United States.

Dr. BYERS. — No doubt of that.

Mr. WINES. — Dr. Byers says so, therefore there can be no doubt of it! I have met the members of the Ohio Board in almost every State in this Union, personally looking into the practical working of public institutions, gathering information and suggestions to bring back with them and put into operation in Ohio. But the excellency of that board is not due to the fact that one-half of its members belong to one political party and the other half to another, with the governor standing as a sort of see-saw between them.

I agree with Gen. Brinkerhoff also on the question of executive power. I do not believe that a State Board of Charities ought to be a paid board; nor that it should have the control of any moneys other than for its own expenses; nor the power to make a single appointment, except that of its own officers. The control of moneys and appointments should be in the hands of local trustees.

Mr. SANBORN.—That is my own position. I do not think that there is so much difference between us as may appear to some persons.

Mr. WINES.—Some of the members of the Illinois Board were very anxious to have compensation allowed them by the legislature for their time and services. But one day Gov. Cullom (now Senator Cullom) said to them that, if the legislature should pass a bill giving them an allowance for this purpose, he would veto it. They were much surprised, and asked his reasons. He said: "I have trouble enough to fill the position, as it is. So long as no pay attaches to it, I am free to select for it the best men that I know who will serve. But, if it were a salaried office, I should be overwhelmed by applications from incompetent men, who would think that the appointment should be given them as a reward for political services in the campaign. I am determined, so long as I am governor, to appoint no man on the Board of Charities to whom compensation for the labor attaching to the position is the slightest object."

Our board audits the accounts of the public institutions, it is true. But that is scarcely to be called an executive function. We do not handle the money, nor control its expenditure. Our influence over expenditures is purely moral and indirect. Since the inauguration, in 1875, of our present financial system (under which no instalment of any appropriation can be paid until the State Board certifies that all previous grants have been duly and correctly accounted for), the cost of maintenance per capita in our State institutions has fallen from \$300 to \$200. It is now only \$187.50. This reduction of cost is due in part, and I think in large part, to the comparisons instituted between one institution and another, the full settlements made once in every three months, and the publicity given to the comparative statements printed by us.

Mr. SANBORN.—What executive power can be greater than the power of stopping supplies?

Mr. WINES.—We have no power to stop supplies. If the accounts of the institutions are correct, they get their money. We cannot prevent their getting it, if we desired to do so. Neither do we control their appropriations. But the power to supervise the financial management of institutions in the way in which we do it is a power which has been of advantage to them and to us. The strength of the Illinois Board with the legislature and with the people is largely owing to the confidence which the public feels that the institution accounts are thoroughly looked into, and that the result of such examination is accurately and fully stated. I believe that other State Boards would do well to pay more attention to this branch of their work.

Dr. BYERS.—I wish to correct an impression that Mr. Wines's remarks may have made, in regard to the non-partisan Board of State Charities in Ohio. He seems to think, not only from what he said, but from his manner of describing the relation of the governor to the board, that the chief executive is a wabblers, wabbling between three Democrats and three Republicans, who under our law consti-

tute the board, the governor being *ex officio* the president. We experience none of the trouble, nor are we responsible for the results, he has pointed out. It is seldom that any division of sentiment occurs, never a minority report on questions relating to our public institutions; and on no question has greater unanimity prevailed than in regard to partisan influences or interference in the administration of these institutions. It must be remembered that each of our State institutions is under the immediate control of its respective Boards of Trustees; and over these the State Board, beyond supervisory and advisory powers, has no authority. The State Board, from year to year, fairly and faithfully points out the difficulties and dangers of partisan political interference, and leaves the responsibility where it belongs,—with the local Boards of Trustees. I am rather surprised to learn from Mr. Wright that men are chosen for the legislature of Wisconsin who know little or nothing of legislative requirements. Our trouble is entirely different: it comes from the election of men who know everything, and some of these immediately upon election propose revolutionizing our entire system of organization and administration of educational and benevolent institutions. As to the care of the insane, our new dining-rooms at the Athens Asylum are working admirably. The patients move out of their respective wards to a common dining-hall,—two large buildings, one for males and one for females,—and sit down quietly, presenting very much the appearance of a large hotel, except that quiet and good order are more marked in the former. Not long since, being present in the male dining-room after the patients were seated, the superintendent requested me to say “grace” before the meal. The patients sat in reverent silence while the “blessing” was asked; and there was nothing to indicate that these people were different from others except that, at the close, a patient seated near me said, in rather a subdued voice, “My wife hit me over the head with a skillet once for doing that.” I do not insist upon it that even this remark was anything more than a reminiscence of domestic unpleasantness.

Mr. GARRETT.—It would be well to call attention to one little feature in the nature of an executive function of the State Board in Pennsylvania, which seems to me to be a very valuable and important one to give to these boards; that is, the power to approve or reject the plans for almshouses and jails. It is of special value early in the existence of a State. We find in Pennsylvania, and it will be found elsewhere, that it is well for the Board of Public Charity to see that proper houses are constructed. The people in charge of erecting these buildings are often entirely ignorant on the subject; and they are glad to be instructed, when they find that there is a power which can intelligently instruct them. I hope this will be borne in mind in the enactments creating new boards.

Adjourned at 10.30 P.M.

FOURTH SESSION.

Lincoln, Nebraska, August 27.

On Saturday morning, the Conference took a special train for the city of Lincoln, under the escort of a committee of three appointed by the Governor of Nebraska, consisting of T. T. Boggs, O. B. Howell, and John T. Doty. On arrival at Lincoln, the members of the Conference were driven in carriages about the city, to visit the Home for the Friendless, where refreshments were served, the State Penitentiary, and the Insane Hospital. On returning to the city, a collation was served by the ladies of Lincoln. At 2.30 P.M., the Conference met in St. Paul's Church, where the following addresses were delivered, the mayor of Lincoln, Hon. A. J. Sawyer, presiding:

ADDRESS OF GOV. THAYER.

My dear Friends, Delegates to this Conference,—I had the pleasure and the honor the other evening, in the name of the State and of the people, of welcoming you within the borders of Nebraska. I did not expect to be called upon to duplicate that welcome; and I hardly know what I can say in addition to what I then uttered, except, having seen you, I can express the pleasure I feel, and which I have no doubt the people of this State and this city feel, in having the opportunity of meeting you here. I repeat to you the assurance that the occasion has been one of pleasure to us all. I utter no idle words when I say to you that we appreciate your labors. We honor you for giving your thoughts and time to the consideration of those questions which affect human welfare, which tend to reform the wicked and sinful, which seek the most enlightened methods of caring for the insane, and for extending charity to those who unfortunately need help. The more you consider these subjects, the more you discuss them with each other, the better will you be able to impart valuable information to others, on whom is laid the duty of superintending our penal and charitable institutions and the institutions for the insane, that most unfortunate class of all, those from whom the light of reason has forever gone. There is no portion of mankind who need the considerate care of intelligent people more than those whose minds have thus been blighted. To that subject I have given a good deal of thought; and last winter I made an earnest recommendation to the legislature for the establishment of an institution where the incurably insane might be separated from others, and I am glad that the legislature made such provision. We are trying to do what we can. I felt a special degree of satisfaction when I found that your association had decided to hold its fourteenth session in the city of Omaha, and in a message to the legislature I expressed that satisfaction. I trust you are having an interesting gathering in the two cities, and that your discussions and considerations of these various topics will

result in spreading abroad an influence in our State, which shall be beneficial, not only to all the people here, but to all the people of the country. Your mission is to build up and to heal instead of to strike down and to wound; and the more you accomplish in this direction, the greater benefits will you confer upon your race. It is the duty of all so to labor, so to act, as to lessen and alleviate human suffering and increase human happiness. In thus doing, you are abiding by the precepts of that matchless code of morals and of laws proclaimed by the humble Nazarene, principles as immutable as the "everlasting hills." Doing good is your motto. Can the intelligence of men and women be devoted to a nobler principle than this? I think not. May the blessing of the Author of all good rest upon you; and, when you leave our State, may you have the satisfaction of thinking that you have contributed to the welfare of the human family!

In my remarks the other evening about the State of Nebraska, you may have thought that I displayed a little boastfulness. I did not mean it in that sense; but we naturally feel a degree of pride in our State in witnessing the great advancement which has been made, and we are pleased to point out these advantages to our friends when they come from the East, that they may see what has been accomplished in Nebraska under that Christianity and that system of education which prevail in the East. I hope the little that you have seen in Nebraska will enable you to say, "the Governor did not tell us the half." I would that you could see more of the State than you will; but glad am I and others that you have come, and we hope that, when you leave us, you will remember us with the kindest feelings.

[A brief address by Hon. Mr. Marquette followed, which failed to reach the hands of the editor.]

ADDRESS BY F. B. SANBORN.

Ladies and Gentlemen,—I have been requested to make a light speech, two minutes long. That agrees with my character and position. We have all of us viewed this city, the capital of Nebraska, with becoming admiration and surprise. But, for my own part, I have seen to-day a sight which I never expected to behold. In our drive through your beautiful city, we very early saw your capitol; and I noticed that it lacked a dome. Then, as we drove along towards the State prison, I inquired into the condition of the prisoners, of their labor, under what terms they were employed, etc.; and we found a gentleman who told us what the prison labor is. It seems that your convicts are employed by—a cultivator I will call him; and that in addition to the use of the labor of the prisoners, which is freely given to him, the State of Nebraska pays him forty cents a day for each convict. Now, what is it that requires this extraordinary liberality towards the cultivator or contractor? we asked. At that moment, we caught sight of a beautiful dome [referring to a dome at the waterworks, springing directly from the ground, with no visible

foundation] in the distance ; and the truth was revealed to us. Two things were then apparent : first, why the state-house lacked a dome ; and, second, what the prisoners were about ! This extraordinary soil of Nebraska has been found to produce state-house domes, among other things ; and the convicts were employed in this beautiful but costly labor of raising the dome from the seed for your undomed capitol ! That I took to be the explanation of the two things that surprised us. If I am wrong, I daresay Gen. Brinkerhoff, who visited the prison also, will correct me. Of everything that we saw, this surprised us most ; but everything delighted us, and the hospitality of the people we shall gratefully remember. I am now inclined to doubt a little the correctness of my interpretation of your State prison industry ; but I give it for what it is worth, confident that Gov. Thayer will not allow any mistake to pass current among us.

ADDRESS OF MRS. R. C. MANLEY.

Ladies and Gentlemen.—To me has been assigned a most pleasant and yet a most difficult task. I am asked to voice the sentiments of the association which I have the honor to represent, and to welcome you in the name of the hundreds of women who compose the Society of the Home for the Friendless in the State of Nebraska.

We greet you as friends, not because we speak the same language or were born under the same flag, but because we are laboring in the same field. We greet you as helpers, not because you will lighten our burdens or remove the obstacles from our pathway, but because we shall gather courage from your presence and strength from your intelligent and kindly criticism.

As our State is one of the youngest in the sisterhood of States, so our Home is one of the youngest in the galaxy of charitable institutions. But when I assure you that we have sheltered 239 women and 471 children, making a total of 710, since our Home opened its doors, less than five years ago, you must admit that the women of our State have not been idle. But we have not only given temporary protection and shelter, but have placed 135 children in permanent Christian homes,—a work of which you can realize the magnitude and importance.

The building is owned by the State, and the last legislature made an appropriation to complete the furnishing of the same. The salaries of our helpers are paid out of a State fund ; but, with the exception of flour and milk, the food must be furnished by the charitable women of the State. We have an excellent school in the building, but no industrial department, as we prefer to place the children in good homes rather than to retain and educate them in a public institution.

May I venture to express the hope that, as you separate and seek your various homes, you will take with you, not only pleasant remembrances of your sojourn in our State and your visit to this, our capital city, but that you may bear with you kindly thoughts of this institution, which is the outgrowth of woman's thought and the embodiment of her earnest endeavor ?

Reference having been made to the State prison of Nebraska, Gov. Thayer asked to say a few words with reference to that subject:—

Gov. THAYER.—I wish to make some remarks about the cost of keeping our prisoners. It may seem to you that our contract is a favorable one to the contractor, but he bears all the expenses of the prison. He pays the salaries of all the officers, from the warden to the guards, and subsists them all, with their families. We have found by investigation that, taking it all in all, we keep our prisoners about as cheaply as they do in many of the States of the East. Furthermore, we have observed in other States that the expenditure of vast sums of money has often been attended with results which have proved more expensive to the State than the system we employ. Knowing the cupidity of many people and the opportunity for speculation of the public funds where parties are charged with the expenditure of such vast sums of money, we think it is a question whether, on the whole, the system prevailing there is better than ours. There is this about it,—that we hold the contractor strictly to his contract. We know the condition of that prison at all times. Without wishing to allude to myself, I may say that I make it my business to go through every part of that penitentiary very often. I go down when the men are called to their dinner or breakfast, when nobody knows that I am coming, and inspect the food. Not long ago, I took a dish of the same kind of food, and ate it. I do that for two reasons,—to know that the convicts are well fed and that they have enough, and that the contractor may know that his way of treating the prisoners will be inspected at all times by the chief executive officer of the State. And I have the satisfaction of knowing that our prisoners *are* well and sufficiently fed. And, while I hold this office, I am determined to pursue this course; and the convicts who conform to the rules of the prison shall be well treated. I owe that to them. I go down occasionally to worship with them, so that they may feel and know that those in authority are interested in their welfare; and some of the convicts have told me that they were sure they had a friend in the governor, and I think it has a good influence upon them. I know that the officers of that prison are thoroughly humane and kind in their treatment of the convicts. Our penitentiary may not compare with the condition of prisons in the East, but we are trying to do the best we can.

So with our insane asylum. I believe it is admirably managed. The officers in charge of the prison and of the asylum are alive to their duties, and they govern their institutions, more than I have known any institutions to be governed, by wise and humane methods.

Our friend Sanborn has alluded humorously to the lack of a dome on our state-house. Well, that is true. There is none there at present. But it is growing by the work of human hands. He spoke of it growing from the soil. I have often, in my boyhood, standing on Boston Common, looked up to the dome upon the capitol build-

ing, and wondered if human hands ever made it or if it grew. I want to say to Mr. Sanborn that when the dome upon our state-house is completed, if it does not present a more sightly appearance than the dome upon the state-house in the city of Boston, I will unite in recommending that it be taken down!

At the close of these addresses, the President, H. H. Giles, took the chair; and the following resolution, offered by H. C. DE MOTTE, of Illinois, was unanimously passed by a rising vote:—

Resolved, That the members of the Fourteenth Annual Conference of Charities and Correction would hereby acknowledge with gratitude the hearty welcome extended to them and the generous provisions made for their personal comfort by the people of Lincoln, and that, as members of this Conference, they will bear with them to their homes pleasant memories of the delightful hours spent in this the Queen City of the Plains.

A paper was then read on "The Contract Convict Labor System" by Gen. Brinkerhoff (page 106). This was followed by discussion.

DISCUSSION ON CONVICT LABOR.

MR. WINES.—To those of us who have attended this Conference from year to year, the subject of contract convict labor is a hackneyed one; and there is little new to be said about it. It is, however, imperfectly understood by the masses. Even in the newspapers, when they discuss the prison question, we find a great deal that is condemned by experience and common sense.

Gen. Brinkerhoff, in what he has said, has correctly stated the analysis of it. He has said, first, that from a business point of view the contract system is the most profitable. Again, he has said that the amount of competition between prison labor and labor outside, which is small under any circumstances, is just as great under one system as another, and that under no circumstances ought we to allow prisoners to be idle or employed otherwise than in productive industry, competition or no competition. Finally, he has said that the contract system is unfavorable to the introduction of a reformatory discipline in prisons. This covers the entire ground. You may illustrate these statements by instances and examples, by statistical tables of figures; but, when you have arrived at the three conclusions announced by Gen. Brinkerhoff, you are at the end of the subject, so far as I understand it.

But there is a further question, which is of interest to the people of Nebraska; that is, the question of different systems of labor in prisons, and their respective value. We are accustomed to say that labor in prisons must be conducted (1) on public account, or (2) under the contract system, or (3) under the lessee system. The difference between the contract system and the lessee system is that, under the former, the State retains the control of the convicts, while

it permits contractors to control their labor; but, under the lessee system, the prison and the prisoners are farmed out to an individual or a corporation at some stipulated price. This last, the lessee system, has been abandoned in every Northern State except Nebraska, but may yet be found in States south of the Ohio River.

Last year, the National Prison Congress went to Atlanta. There, in Georgia, the lessee system is in vogue. We made up our minds not to say much about it, for fear of giving offence and doing harm instead of good. But we discussed the general subject of prison organization, management, and discipline. The result of our visit was that the consciences of the people were awakened to the enormity of the lessee system. A charge of dynamite was put under it, with a lighted fuse; and during the past nine months there has been a tremendous overturning there. We hope that the visit of this Conference to the State of Nebraska will result in like manner in awakening the deliberate, earnest thought of the people of this State, and that it will lead them to consider whether or not, in this day and generation, they have a moral right to maintain the lessee system of prison management in their midst.

With regard to the financial aspect of the question, I do not know that that is any of our business. If the contract which exists between the lessee of the Nebraska penitentiary and the people of Nebraska is satisfactory to the lessee (and I presume that it is satisfactory to him), to the legislature, and to the people of your State, why, that is the end of that, so far as we are concerned. I think that I am correct in saying that the number of prisoners in your penitentiary is about three hundred and fifty, and that the State, after giving to the lessee the use of the prison and the labor of the prisoners free of charge, pays him in addition forty cents a day for each convict committed to his custody. Any one of you can figure how much that amounts to in a year.* But I will say, as a man tolerably well versed in the statistics of prisons throughout the United States, that it is my deliberate judgment—and I think that it is the judgment of this Conference—that every penny of that money is pure profit to the lessee. Under a wise and judicious administration, a penitentiary may be made very nearly, if not quite, self-supporting. We know that in some of the Southern States the lessee not only pays all expenses, including the guarding, feeding, and clothing prisoners, but he pays a bonus to the State in addition.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.—In Georgia, twenty-five thousand dollars a year.

Mr. WINES.—I believe so, and in Alabama over fifty thousand dollars. But here in Nebraska the State pays a bonus to the lessee of forty or fifty thousand dollars a year, one-half of which at least is probably pure profit, if we had access to the lessee's private books. If that is satisfactory to the people of Nebraska, we have nothing to say.

But I ask, Is it right or fair or just to the prisoner? With no reference to the lessee or to the tax-payer, I must be permitted to

* $\$0.40 \times 350 \times 365 = \$51,100.$

say, in the interest of the prisoner, that I believe that, of all forms of prison labor, this is the worst for him; and I object to it on that ground.

The governor has told you that the convicts are well fed: I do not doubt it. He has said that he has tasted the food, and found it good and in sufficient quantity: I do not doubt it. That the prisoners are well clothed and humanely treated: I do not doubt it. I believe every statement that he has made, and hold him in the highest respect. But I have visited nearly every prison in the United States and many in Europe, and I give you my word that I have never,—I speak as a matter of conscientious obligation,—I have never been in a prison where I was so filled with the sense of gloom and depression on the part of the prisoners as in this prison at Lincoln, when I visited it a year or more ago. To-day, I have not seen much of it. Then I saw it all; and I did not see a smile upon one single face, from the lessee, through the warden and the guards, down to the convicts,—not one smile upon a human face. And I have never been in a prison of which I can say the same.

I am not here to advise you what to do about it. Discuss the matter among yourselves. When you consider it, you may come to the conclusion that you are doing the best and only right thing for these prisoners. You may conclude that you have the best reformatory discipline in the United States,—better than that at Elmira; that you are giving all the moral and secular education, all the upward impulse, that it is possible to give. If that is so—But is it so? Is it true? Or is there a duty on the part of the citizens of Nebraska to the prisoners confined in this prison, which remains unfulfilled? I put the question. I do not answer it.

Mr. WRIGHT.—I wish to take a different point of view of contract labor in prisons, the historical point of view. Many of you are aware that the United States was the pioneer of prison reform in the world, but it is now lagging far behind some other countries in this respect. About the beginning of this century, a movement towards prison reform was begun in Pennsylvania, first by the Quakers in a society represented in this Conference; and Pennsylvania has the honor of leading as a State in legislation looking towards prison reform. All prisons up to the beginning of this century throughout the world were as John Howard described them about the middle of the last century, and as Dr. E. C. Wines, the John Howard of our century, still found existing in some places. As a rule, they were in the condition that many of our county jails are in still, probably some in the State of Nebraska as well as elsewhere,—places where prisoners were herded together in idleness, filth, and misery.

The first great step in prison reform was to introduce labor. In this, the United States led in the Pennsylvania plan of solitary labor and the Auburn plan of associated labor.

I think it is fair to say, also, that the United States led in the next great movement, which was towards more humane treatment of prisoners, abolishing barbarous punishments. These steps of improve-

ment have been followed up by most of the civilized nations of the world except Russia, which still remains in a very bad state. A few years before our Civil War, and while our attention was engrossed with the controversies which led to that war, first Ireland and then England introduced a new reformatory principle, based upon the idea that punishment is to reform the prisoner, to save him, if possible, for the State. The United States has not yet accepted this principle, except in a few instances. We have not yet adopted the reformatory treatment of prisoners as a principle of legislation. The essential part of the British system is the shortening of the term of service, and sending the prisoner out for good conduct under a ticket-of-leave, thus trying him before giving him absolute discharge, and introducing the principle of hope instead of fear to govern him.

Now, what is the reason that we, who were foremost in the movement for prison reform, are now lagging behind? There are several reasons. I think it is fair to say that it is not the fault of any particular governor or legislature or prison officials, but the fault of the people of the United States. Our system of government represents the average. It is the government of the average, by the average, for the average. It is not the best nor the worst minds that rule the people, but the average public opinion. Now, this matter of prison reform is a matter of legislation; and it must be brought about by public opinion. It cannot be very far in advance of the average public opinion of the country, by which this and kindred questions are decided. It is not a matter of educating one governor or one prison board, but of educating the whole people.

One obstacle to the introduction of reformatory methods is politics in prison management. Our people run to politics. We know the evils that spring from the practice of using public offices for political spoils. That is seen most in our great cities, but more or less in nearly every portion of our country; and one of the things we are trying to bring about to-day is to take this and that and the other thing out of politics,—that is, to have our institutions, educational, charitable, penal, used for the purposes for which they were intended, for the good of the people, and not for the good of the politicians or for party profit. Of all the charitable and penal institutions that this Conference has anything to do with, prisons are more under the control of politicians than any other class of institutions. Their internal arrangement is too often governed by political reasons. This stands as a great obstacle in the way of reformatory treatment. The contract system we have come to by experience as being the best thing in a pecuniary view, considering the fact that the prisons are to be governed by politicians. If they were going to be governed by strictly business men, appointed for business reasons and kept in office during good behavior, I have little doubt that the profit which the contractors make would be added to what they pay the State, and the prisons could be made more profitable than they are now, provided profit was the object to be sought. But we believe that the contract system is wrong in principle. It is farming out the function of the government.

Another great obstacle to reform in prison management is that we make money the measure of everything in this country. We carry that principle too much into the management of our institutions, and more in prisons than elsewhere. The whole question in the mind probably of the majority of persons who have to deal with this subject is, How near can we get our prisons to be self-supporting? That idea is an obstacle in our way. The first thing that the reformatory method asks is, not that money, but that manhood, shall be made in the prison.

The last obstacle in the way is this: that, owing partly to the fact that our State governments have charge of most of our prisoners, we have not been able to have a proper classification of them. In Nebraska, for instance, there are only about three hundred convicts in the penitentiary; and the State does not think it can afford to maintain more than one prison. We ought always to have a separate prison for women. But in Nebraska you have only four women in State prison, and the State would not think it could afford a separate prison under those conditions. Massachusetts does have a separate reformatory for women, which is doing a noble work. We all agree that we ought to have a separate reformatory for boys. We ought also to have a classification of male convicts, though here I differ from Gen. Brinkerhoff in his line of classification. He draws the line at young men convicted for the first offence, between sixteen and thirty,—probably because the Elmira Reformatory draws it there. I see no reason why men of any age, convicted for the first time, should not have the benefit of reformatory treatment. Habitual criminals, when proved such, should be sentenced for life, and kept in prison to protect society. But many a man is led by temptation into committing one crime, who is no better and no worse than the average. No matter what method of treatment he may receive, he would never commit another crime. This class are "reformed" under any prison system. But there is another large class who naturally drift into vice and crime because of their low heredity, their low surroundings, and their imperfect education. When they are convicted of crime, they need something more than merely to be punished. They need to have the defects of their early education supplied by industrial, mental, and moral training. This our prisons do not do, and that is where the work of the reformatory comes in. It is for this class that a reformatory work is specially needed in our prisons. Probably half our prisoners in State prisons are of this class. An ordinary prison does nothing for them except to keep them from disturbing society for a short time, and to scare them a little, while at the same time it puts upon them the brand of "prison bird," and introduces them to the companionship of many noted professional criminals. The reformatory prison has undertaken to change the habits and ideas of this class.

I have stated the obstacles in the way of the next great step in prison reform. They can only be overcome by a change in public opinion, and that is what such gatherings as this in which we are now met are for.

Dr. DANA.—It may be of interest to the people of Nebraska, so far as they care for the experience and opinions of the rest of the world, to know that at present Great Britain, by general admission, has the best prison system extant. Among the things they hold to be settled, and the principles they deem established, are: (1) that penal institutions are no longer to be conducted with a view to making them pecuniarily profitable to the State; (2) that politics are never to be allowed to enter into or in any way affect their administration; (3) that the State account system of labor is, all things considered, the best for the reformatory purposes always to be kept in view, and avoids most of the complications connected with the contract system. Further, let me add, in England, among penologists and prison reformers, the lessee system has been wholly repudiated, and is regarded as a relic of a barbarous age, a reminder of the brutal methods once in vogue in convict establishments. Under these accepted principles of prison management, crime in Great Britain has been of late years steadily diminishing; and the number of her prisons has fallen from one hundred and thirteen to fifty-nine, while uniformity, economy, and improved administration have at the same time been secured.

TECHNOLOGIC TRAINING IN REFORM SCHOOLS.

Mr. L. S. FULTON.—I agree with Gen. Brinkerhoff in almost every point which he has made on the convict labor question.

For nine years I had charge of a county penitentiary. The labor of that institution was all under contract. When I left there, I took charge of what was formerly known as the Western House of Refuge, and the labor of that institution was under contract, every boy seating chairs, the contracts for manufacturing chairs and brushes having been rescinded because of the dangerous machinery used. In my first annual report of that institution, I opposed working the boys in that way, and advocated the introduction of a variety of trades. That was seventeen years ago. My idea then was that the only way in which we could teach more trades was to induce men who were engaged in the various manufacturing industries to contract for the labor of our inmates, but the trouble was men could not be found who were willing to risk their capital in working boys. All that could be done in addition to what we were then doing was to enter into contract with a man to manufacture shoes, and we ran along in that way for about fifteen years. I could find no way out of this dilemma until about two years ago, when I received a communication from Mr. Letchworth, saying that he was coming to see me about an important project. In a few days he came; and, during a long conversation that I then had with him, he told me about the technological system of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in Boston, and said that he had a set of their models. After he got through, I said: "That is a very practical idea. I would like to have it adopted in this institution." We then agreed that we would see the president and secretary and treasurer of the board. After a conference with them, it was

decided to call a meeting of the board. A meeting was held, a committee was appointed to consider the subject, a favorable report was returned, which was unanimously adopted by the board, and an appropriation was asked and granted by the legislature, with which we established in our institution this technologic idea of trade schools. I had been ambitious to accomplish the largest amount of work with the smallest expense, for it was then considered that he was a model superintendent who could do this. I was trying all I could do to make these boys earn a large amount of money, so as to make the per capita expenditure as small as possible. But I have changed my views. I believe that the cost of maintenance should not be taken into account. We should be economical in our expenditures, but should not seek to have large earnings. We should try to make what we can of the boy, not what we can make out of him.

Our first shop was a carpenter and joiner's; the second, a wood turner and pattern-maker's; the third, a blacksmith's; the fourth, a bricklayer and plasterer's; and the fifth, a foundry. We have already a shoemaker's and tailor's shops. We have it in contemplation to establish three other industries,—a machine shop, a drawing-school for free hand and mechanical and architectural drawing, and the erection of green-houses to teach floriculture. The shops now in operation are models of their kind. Our carpenter shop has twenty-four benches, each supplied with a complete set of the very best tools made, and a place in each bench for every tool used. The boys are taught to keep their tools in order, that there is a place for everything, and that everything must be in its place; and, when they are through work, each bench is locked up. Our instructor in this department is a man whose equal you will hardly find. He is an educated gentleman, and has the faculty of imparting instruction and of managing his boys, though you would never hear him speak above an ordinary tone. The boys are greatly interested in their work, because they are not working for the State, but for themselves. They are more manly, self-reliant, and cheerful than under the old system. This teacher not only gives instruction in the use of tools, but he tells them all about the lumber that they use, the different kinds and qualities, how pine differs from hemlock, oak, ash, or other timber, what they are used for and why, how they season, shrink, and warp,—such things as a master mechanic never thinks of telling his apprentices. Everything is done by rule and in a scientific manner. The last half-hour he takes them to a class room, and gives them an exercise in drawing. They make everything after a drawing, making their own measurements from a scale: plain butt joints, mitre, dovetail, and blind dovetail joints; doors, window frames, newel posts, brackets, etc.

We recently erected a laundry, thirty by sixty feet. The entire work of carpentry and joinery, masonry, painting, etc., was done by the boys; and it is as good a building of its kind as there is in Rochester. We are now at work taking out the narrow windows and removing the bars from the front of our buildings, and replacing them with new windows of the ordinary width. The boys are making new

box window frames and casing the windows, and the work is as well done as it would be by any adult mechanic we could employ. It surprises old mechanics to see how well they work. In the wood-turning and pattern-making, blacksmith's, bricklayer's, and plasterer's shops, and foundry, the method of instruction is similar to that of the carpenter and joiner's shop,—scientific, thorough, and practical. Many said that we could not teach masonry, but we do. They first lay dry brick, learn to break joints, turn corners, and put in the heading course. Then they lay them up in mortar. After a few courses have been put up, they take them down, scrape off the mortar before it has hardened, mix the mortar, and build it over again. Then they put up the entire building, setting the door and window sills, caps and frames, and complete the entire building, cornice and all. Then it is taken down and rebuilt, each time introducing some new style of work. Thus they learn the entire trade. In the same way, they learn to plaster, having two model rooms, with door and window-frames,—one for the rough coat, the other for the finishing coat. These rooms are plastered and replastered, the mortar having been scraped off and worked over and used again. Thus they become skilled workmen. Besides this work, they have three and a half hours in school each day, and three or more hours for recreation; and they are as cheerful and happy as any like number outside.

I would like to mention a boy who ran away from us, was gone five months, spending thirty days of that time in the Cleveland Workhouse, thirty days in the Cincinnati Workhouse, thirty days in the Detroit House of Correction, and ten days in the Erie County Workhouse. After all this, he came back, asked to be taken in, said he wanted to earn his badges and go out in an honorable way. I took him in. No one seemed to care to have him, but one day the instructor in the carpentry and joinery department said to me he would like to try him in his shop. I placed him there; and he is now a first-class mechanic, earning at his trade in a neighboring village two dollars and a quarter a day.

If any of you are interested in reform schools or similar work, let me advise you to go to work at once and convince your board of managers or directors of the practicability of teaching your boys trades, transform your institutions into schools of technology, where you will not only educate the head, but the hands also, and make of your boys skilled workmen at some trade or calling, sending them out armed and equipped to fight life's battles honorably and successfully, and to become self-reliant, self-respecting, and self-supporting citizens.

Let each boy learn what he is best adapted for. Some are best adapted for working in wood, others in metal. The way I do is to take the boy's history; find out what his father or grandfather, uncles or older brothers, work at; talk with him; ask him if he would like to learn this or that trade. And he is pretty sure to choose, saying, "I would like to learn carpentry, because Uncle John was a carpenter"; or, "I would like blacksmithing, because my grandfather was a black-

smith." I place them where they are best suited. They will not all make mechanics, but I do the best I can with them. When a boy is assigned to a shop, I make him promise that he will obey the rules of the shop, work faithfully, learn rapidly as possible, be kind to his instructor, and follow that trade for a livelihood.

A DELEGATE.—Are your boys committed for a definite time, or are you at liberty to discharge them?

Mr. FULTON.—The sentence is indefinite. They may be held during minority. The board of managers have the power to discharge a boy when they believe it for the best interest of the boy, his parents, and the State to do so.

DELEGATE.—What is the average time that it takes the boys to become competent to work at these trades?

Mr. FULTON.—Most of them can do very good work in six or eight months. They learn much more readily under our system of instruction than they do from imitation.

H. H. HART.—We have been talking about prison labor and looking at prison statistics. But you have in this city, and almost within the sound of my voice, an institution which is feeding your prisons, which is sending out graduates thoroughly trained and fitted for crime. It is a room fifteen by twenty feet, with a long table in the centre. Around this, you will find a number of men playing cards, gambling, and telling stories of criminal life and wrong doing. There is no separation between the different classes of prisoners. Witnesses are put in with the hard criminals. If a young man is arrested for the first time, he goes into jail with a feeling of shame. But here he is thrown in with men who will harden him with stories of criminal life, and in the end they will plot together for future crime; and, if he tries to live a decent life, they will blackmail him. You have in this city a woman who has visited all the county jails in this State; and she says they are nearly all in this same condition. This is one of the problems you have to study. Adjoining this room to which I have referred are the cells, built to accommodate twenty prisoners; but they sometimes have to provide beds for over fifty in a night. A lodging place for the less dangerous prisoners has been provided in a room above the cells. Next to this room is a room for female prisoners, with nothing but a wooden partition between them and a great crack under the door. Here is something for you to look after.

Adjourned at 5 P.M.

FIFTH SESSION.

Omaha, Sunday night, August 28.

The Conference sermon was preached on Sunday morning in the Exposition Building, by Rev. M. McG. Dana, D.D., from the words, "Go and do thou likewise" (Luke x., 37).

In the afternoon, Very Rev. Dean Hart, formerly of London, but now of Denver, addressed the Conference on the "Secret of Power

in Charitable Undertakings, from the Scientific and the Christian Sides."

The fifth session of the Conference was held on Sunday night at 8 P.M., in the Exposition Building, the President in the chair. Prayer was offered by Rev. R. W. Hill, D.D.

The report of the Committee on "Our Duty to the African and Indian Races" was presented by the chairman, Philip C. Garrett (page 163).

A paper by Gen. S. C. Armstrong, on "The Future of the African Race," was read by F. B. Sanborn (page 167).

An address by F. B. Sanborn, on "The Education of the African Race," followed (page 170).

Addresses were given by Mrs. O. J. Hiles, of Milwaukee, on "The Mission Indians of California" (page 187); Miss Alice C. Fletcher, on "The Allotment of Land in Severalty among the Omahas and Winnebagoes" (page 172); and Rev. Robert W. Hill, D.D., on "Education as a Factor in Indian Civilization" (page 184).

Adjourned at 10.30 P.M.

SIXTH SESSION.

Monday morning, August 29.

The Conference met at 9 A.M., the President in the chair. Prayer was offered by Rev. H. Chapin, of Lincoln.

A telegram was read from Rev. R. C. Buckner, of Texas, bringing greetings, and announcing that he had been appointed a delegate to the Conference, but had been unavoidably prevented from attending.

A letter from Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, of California, was read, in which she stated that work among neglected children in California is going forward with much success.

On motion of Mr. WRIGHT, it was voted that each speaker in the discussions should be limited to ten minutes.

The reports from States was continued. A letter from Rev. Charles A. Allen, State Secretary for Louisiana, was read, saying that no report had been prepared from that State.

Reports were read from Virginia (page 68), Connecticut (page 26), Wyoming (page 73), Iowa (page 39), Washington Territory (page 68).

On motion of Mrs. DINSMORE, a committee was appointed to visit and report on the Children's Hospital of Omaha. Mr. Charles D. Kellogg, Mr. N. S. Rosenau, and Mrs. J. S. Sperry were named as the committee.

The Committee on Time and Place (page 265) was announced.

The report of the Committee on Moral and Industrial Education was made by the chairman, Rev. M. McG. Dana, D.D. (page 243).

Mrs. Elizabeth B. Fairbanks, of Milwaukee, reported for the Standing Committee on Child-saving Work. It was simply a word of introduction to the reading of the papers prepared at the request of the committee. Mrs. FAIRBANKS said:—

The subject, Child-saving Work, suggests that all our children are in danger. They must be rescued, for upon them depends the future well-being of our country. The great body of children who have homes need saving as well as the comparatively small number who are homeless and neglected. To save the average child from idleness, ignorance, suffering, and crime is a field of labor so broad that it can justly be called the most important work of the age. The problem of "how to save the child, and give the State the man," is far from being solved, though great advancement is being made in that direction through faithful, intelligent effort. As to child-saving in its strict sense, Mr. Letchworth's able paper on "Children of the State," presented to the Conference two years ago, and Mrs. Virginia T. Smith's excellent report of one year ago, cover so much of the ground that little new can be said. Of this child saving work there are but two divisions, prevention and cure. Under the head of preventive work come the causes of vice in children. Are they heredity, ignorance, intemperance, poverty? And can the cure be found in compulsory education of an industrial and moral nature, truant laws, State custody of homeless children?

We present for your consideration a few short papers, whose authors write from large experience.

A paper on "Children's Homes" was read by Mrs. S. W. Pierce, of Davenport, Iowa, of which the following is a brief abstract:—

The homes of needy children should be frequently visited; and, after all other means of rescue have failed, the children should be removed into good families, so far as such families can be secured. The greatest caution should be exercised here. Too many people want to take children for their own sake, and not for the child's good. It is usually only the most attractive children that are in demand. Cripples and uncomely children are less liable to imposition in institutions than in families. In an experience of nineteen years in one home, Mrs. Pierce felt that ninety-five per cent. of the children grew into respectable citizens. Homes for children should be conducted on the cottage plan, with little families of from fifteen to twenty, with children graded according to age and capacity. A kind, motherly, Christian woman should preside over each cottage. The better nature of children is developed by coming in contact with pure minds. Therefore, personal work with children should be emphasized.

A paper on "The Children of Shinbone Alley" was read by Dr. R. W. Hill (page 229).

A paper on "Reclamation of Children" was read by A. S. White, superintendent Franklin County Children's Home, Columbus, Ohio (page 236).

Papers on "Prevention of Cruelty to Animals and Children," by J. G. Shortall, Chicago, and on "Child-saving Work," by Isaac Prince, of Illinois, were read by title.

A paper on "The Economy of the State in the Care of Dependent and Neglected Children," by Mrs. Virginia T. Smith, of Connecticut, was read by Mrs. Fairbanks (page 238).

A paper by Miss Louise J. Kirkwood, of New York, on "How to Teach Little Girls to Sew," was read by Miss Bertha Byers, of which the following is an abstract:—

Little children as young as five or six years of age should learn the use of the implements which they are to use before the actual stitches are taken. Their muscles may not yet be strong enough to wield the scissors certainly or dexterously, but they may be drilled into the easy use of the needle and thimble. It may take a lesson or two to teach each one to readily show the right or left hand, when called for; but a short lesson will generally suffice to teach the class to promptly show the thimble finger. There is a reward at this stage of progress in capping this finger with the bright new thimble. Give the children a little time to get used to wearing it, then single out the finger and thumb which must take the needle. Ask them to show you and at the same time tell you that it is "between the first finger and thumb of the right hand" that they must hold the needle. To these several members may soon be intrusted the needle, which is to be taken from the cushion as it is passed along.

All the children have a needle now. Talk to them a little about it. Let them look through the eye, and feel the sharp point. Then all must now try to place the eye end of the needle against the end or outer side of the thimble (which they have on the middle finger) without the assistance of the left hand. The teacher must know just how she does this herself, and should make the motions before the class very slowly. The little chubby fingers may find this a difficult task, but they will learn it little by little. Rest then, with a song between. Then try again. Some will get it easily, some will need the guiding touch of the teacher's hand; but all will surely try. If they drop their needles, do not take the class time to find them. They will be careful the next time.

Now, for taking the stitch without the thread. The left hand here comes up for its first lesson; for it must hold an edge or a fold of the little one's apron or dress, in which the stitches are to be taken. They will be mock stitches, to be sure; but never mind, there are

real ones ahead, and these play stitches will help to make the real ones pleasant when the time comes for them.

With the left hand holding the apron or dress all ready for the stitches, the needle properly placed against the thimble and raised, so that the teacher can see it, she tells the class to stick the needle in the fold of the cloth, pointing the needle towards themselves, as she counts *one*, to pull it through (with the right hand) as she counts *two*, and to get the needle in position again against the thimble as she repeats *and* slowly.

Drill them thoroughly in this exercise. Vary it with an air which has some swinging movement. This will help to make the exercise pleasant.

When the motions and changes of this exercise can be easily made, then distribute to each a suitable length of thread.

The teacher may then show the class how to take the end of the thread between the first finger and thumb of the left hand, how to twist it a little, and how to pass the eye of the needle over the end of the thread. If here and there is found one who finds a different way of threading the needle which is easier for her, let her have her way. The triumph in this case is in getting the needle threaded.

The class has now reached the point when the "Practice Cloth" may be taken up, on which the steps are so plainly marked they cannot be mistaken. The teacher should make free use of the blackboard to indicate the direction, slant of the needle, etc. Many points will occur to her which can be easily shown on the blackboard.

If the children are as young as has been suggested, the cutting and basting will need to be done for them. Other points for the teacher will be found in the "Directions for the Use of the Practice Cloth," which, with the "Sewing Primer," includes what seem to be the most needful instructions on a method the strongest endeavor of which has been to make the use of the needle a pleasure. This accomplished, success is certain.

A paper on "Children's Homes, their Location and Construction," was read by Mrs. Lucretia V. Gorgas, of Defiance, Ohio, of which the following is an abstract:—

The first consideration should be a healthful location. A watershed or knoll, from which the surface water will quickly run off, and where good drainage may be had, is essential. In a word, it should be dry and airy and exposed to the sun. For public economy, the home should be near some large community, where in addition there may be the further advantages of churches, schools, and social entertainments. Mistakes have been made in regarding large premises as essential to economic management and the industrial training of children. There is no economy in a location remote from a business centre; and, while it is true that children should be trained to habits of industry, it should be remembered that this labor could never be productive except by retaining children beyond the

age at which they should be placed in families, the primary object being to bring children under the best possible training while waiting for adoption. This can best be secured by small premises and moderate-sized buildings. Kitchen and flower gardens, playgrounds, a lawn, and neatly kept walks and drives are sufficient for the industrial training of little children. In any locality, an abundance of good water is essential. The day-rooms occupied by the children should have a southern exposure, and properly arranged nurseries will diminish doctors' bills. In the arrangement of the house, primary consideration should be given to the care, comfort, and culture of the children; while at the same time the convenience of the managers of the household should be regarded. The home life should approach as nearly as possible the ideal family life. The impression of such a home on a child's mind is one of the best guarantees of a happy, prosperous, and useful future.

DISCUSSION ON CHILD-SAVING WORK.

Dr. BYERS.—It seems to me evident from the last paper presented, as well as from the experience of those familiar with our reformatory and child-saving institutions, that there is not proper discrimination made between the classes of children with which we have to deal. We have heard this morning of the utterly depraved class, from heredity and early environment. It would seem almost the natural course of events that these children, running as they naturally do into the hands of the police,—there are no other hands open to them,—should be put at once right along with the criminal class, as being less hopeful; and yet we do not classify adult criminals or treat adults who go wrong in any such way as that. The very fact of this hereditary condition and of these vicious surroundings is the best claim that such children have upon society for the best, wisest, and most humane treatment that can be given to such a child. The bane of our jail system has been want of discrimination. We have a law in Ohio forbidding sheriffs to put juveniles in the jail with adult prisoners, and yet the county does not provide the sheriff with the means of separation. We have a State reformatory school, to which boys from ten to sixteen years of age, upon having committed a crime, may be sent; and yet there are parents who use it for the purpose of unloading their children upon the State for the State to take care of. [A voice: "That is in Ohio."] Yes, in proud, grand, good old Ohio. We are not free from mistakes. Within the past week, a young mother came and asked my assistance to place her child in an industrial home for girls. I asked her, "What has your child done?" and she said, "Nothing; only I thought it would be a good place for her." I said: "You were there once. Was it a good place for you? Did you like it when you were there? At what age were you dismissed?" She said, "Eighteen," and that she did not like it much when she was there. I said: "You did not like it when you were there. Now, your child,—how about that? Where is your husband?" And she

said, "I have been unfortunate; but, if I could get rid of my child, there is a possibility that I could get married." There was a mother willing to imprison her child from the age of five to eighteen for the sake of getting rid of her care. We have in our Industrial Home for Girls a little girl that I held on my knee a few evenings since, and talked with her, as I would come into your family and talk with your children if they would come to me; and they almost always do. That child said, "I am nine years old." I said, "No, you are five." "No," she said, "I am nine." The facts are that her sister was brought there two years ago; and they said they would have brought the other one, only she was five. And in two years she is nine years old, and forced upon the State by proceedings that have been hasty, ill-judged, and positively criminal. The obligation rests upon the State and society to discriminate carefully between the criminal class that need reforming and the other class of unfortunate children who simply need assistance, to be placed in the proper position of self-support and self-respect.

J. W. SKINNER, of New York.—I was glad to hear the paper upon "The Children of Shinbone Alley." I have been in that alley. I rather think it is in New York. They have a number of Shinbone Alleys, which are called Hell's Kindergartens, where children are trained in vice and crime; but, in New York, we have established schools to take the children from these alleys. The work that goes on there is one of importance, that of manual education and mental and moral training, which is done very effectively. We have there schools in which children who come from these alleys are taught to cook; and one of the first lessons they have to perform is to take their lesson home, and cook a dinner at home the same as they have cooked in the schools. We have our sewing-schools, a carpenter school, pattern-making, and various things, cultivating the hand and the mind at the same time; but I really think that the best thing we do is to take the children away from those surroundings. We have to-day a strong current of testimony in favor of family homes. One paper is in favor of institutions, but the others generally favor family homes. A few nights ago, we had on this stage the spectacle of a man who had had charge of an industrial home for twenty years stating that he had doubt if any good had come of his industrial school. I am glad to hear that he has reformed in the line of manual training, and that he is after this to devote his attention to training the hands, minds, and soul in a state of freedom,—not to have boys and girls surrounded with prison walls for their homes, kept within bolts and bars, with policemen for their parents, and then turn out jail birds, but let them have their freedom, give them an opportunity to develop their powers. Our system—that of the Children's Aid Society of New York—was one that was started some thirty years ago,—of putting children at once in families. We do not believe in the intermediate stage. No doubt, it is in some instances very beneficial and useful; but there was a pressure upon us, such a great multitude to be cared for that we said, If there is any child here without a home, we will find him

one. There is a home for every child, and we tried the experiment of putting them into homes. After twenty or thirty years' experience, we can point to thousands and thousands of good homes that have been provided. In our very last report there are some twenty pages of letters from individuals who have written to us, in substance saying: We should be in New York on the road to ruin, only we were taken West. Now, we have land and property, we are respected and in good positions; and we owe it to the fact of the interest taken in us by the Children's Aid Society. It has been said that the Children's Aid Society was sending out people to poison the whole country, and that they were becoming an army of tramps. Now, we deny that, and we call for a witness the Secretary of this Conference, who can prove it to be untrue; for he investigated the cases of three hundred and forty children who had been sent to Minnesota, and he found that nine-tenths of those that were under thirteen years of age were doing well. We sent a man to investigate the industrial schools and prisons of Wisconsin. He took up case by case, and examined every one of them; and the result of it was, I think, that there were some five or six inmates that were reported as coming from New York, but there were only two in which there was a suspicion that they could possibly have come from the Children's Aid Society.

Mr. ELMORE said that he would repeat what he had already said, that children taken from an institution and turned loose without any one to look after them "go to the bad." He did not doubt that the preceding speaker was honest in his belief that the records of the institutions to which he referred had been examined; but as those records contained the history of 2,100 inmates, and the investigators were there but two hours, it would have been impossible to make a thorough examination. He believed that the children sent out from the Children's Aid Society had taught crimes that were unknown to the children of the rural districts, and that no such children should be sent out without having properly appointed persons to look after them and keep watch of them.

Mr. STORRS.—The system prevailing in Michigan is a county agency system. One of the duties of the county agent is this: any child that is arrested for crimes or misdemeanor cannot be tried until the case is submitted to the examination of this agent. Every court has to report the name of the child to the county agent; and he takes the case in hand, thoroughly investigates it, and recommends to the court what is to be done with the child. The result is that only about thirty per cent. of the children arrested during the past year have been sent to the Reformatory, and in one of the largest counties, the county agent reporting the largest number of arrests, that number is perhaps fifteen per cent., not much more than that. The cases are disposed of in a good many ways, the children being sent to the reformatory, or the sentence suspended, and in some cases parents put under bonds. This is the system adopted in Michigan, and the commitment must be indorsed by the county agents before the child can be received by the superintendent. In regard to placing children

in homes from our State Public School at Coldwater, the matter has to be approved by the county agent or State agent of that institution. When persons make a request for a child, it is usually sent to the county agent, who is apt to be familiar with the families in the county. The child is sent, if the request receives his approval. We have found some difficulty in placing children in some counties for this reason: our county agents inform us that so many Eastern children that have been placed in homes have turned out poorly that the people do not care to try the experiment again. This complaint has hindered the work so much that last winter there was a law enacted in our State placing all children under the same provision as those taken from the Coldwater school, and the children when left in the State are under the same provision as our own children. Of course, we could not shut out of Michigan the children of New York or Massachusetts, nor did we wish it; nor does it follow that because certain children turned out badly that they are all bad children. There was one boy in our State Public School—I saw his record there—who, before he had found the proper place, had been placed in seven homes. He was a good boy, and all the homes were good homes; but the boy didn't fit the homes. That is the work of the county agent. There may be mistakes made by the county agent. Some of the children are doubtless good, and some are bad; but they need to fit the home in which they are placed. We hope that now, if our friends from the East bring children, they will find proper homes and proper supervision for them.

Mr. JOHNSON.—It seems to me that a root of evil in caring for children in some places is in the system of State aid to private institutions. This always works evil in the long run, no matter how great the advantage it may seem to possess at first. Our Illinois system is somewhat the same, although it has not been carried so far; and its evil effects are now quite apparent. It began only a few years ago in a law which allowed dependent children to be committed to private institutions at a per capita charge on the county committing them. The inevitable tendency of such a measure is that the children are kept in the institutions, so as to draw the county allowance; *i.e.*, their interests are sacrificed to the interest of the institution. Benevolent people, actuated by the very highest motives, arrange these industrial schools, etc., as voluntary charities. After a time, it begins to be hard work to raise the necessary money for their support every year; and their friends in the legislature secure appropriations or some other form of tax-payal aid. This is all very well until the founders drop out, and the institutions get into the hands of others not so careful as were the originators, perhaps; and the interests of the children are sacrificed, as I have said, to the interests of the institution. There are some notable exceptions. We have several in Chicago, where ladies have been at the head of important committees for twenty or twenty-five years consecutively; and the work is admirably done. I believe most heartily in private charities, and think that nothing that can and will be done by them

should be undertaken by the State. But, if the State does undertake to support institutions of any kind, they should be absolutely under State control. And by State I mean, of course, any governmental body, whether city, county, or commonwealth.

Mr. HART.—As I have been referred to as having investigated the cases of three hundred and forty children placed out in Minnesota, and the inference seemed to be that my report was an unqualified approval, I would hardly be willing to allow the audience to go away with that view. You will find in the Proceedings of the Conference of 1884 at St. Louis the paper which I then read on "Placing Out Children in the West," page 143, in which I tabulated the results of that inquiry. I will refer to two or three points. There were four charges made against the society: first, that vicious and depraved children were sent out; second, that children were placed in homes without proper inquiry, and often ill-used; third, that the society, having disposed of the children, leaves them to shift for themselves, without further care; fourth, that a large portion turn out badly, swelling the ranks of pauperism and crime. I said in that paper, To the charge of placing children without proper investigation, we fear the society must plead guilty; and I went on to describe the plans pursued. Notice was published in the local papers announcing the distribution of forty children in Minnesota. The children arrived about half-past three, and within three hours the children were nearly all disposed of. The children were not indentured, but free to leave; and the farmers were free to dismiss them, if they proved unsatisfactory. When this report was made, these children had been in Minnesota only three years; and sixteen per cent. were found doing badly and about four-fifths doing well. Out of the three hundred and forty, about ten per cent. were girls over twelve years of age; and I have been unable to find any case of the girls that was thoroughly satisfactory. One girl that was considered the most satisfactory, in Nobles County, went to the bad. She need not have done so, if she had been carefully supervised.

The supervision of these children not being sufficient, the society was not encouraged to send more. I would be the last one to do injustice to the Children's Aid Society. We regard it as a noble charity. But their work has been done at too little expense. The work must be conducted with careful judgment. If it were carefully done, and if the children were well supervised, and were not sent out over the age of fourteen, we should have little cause for complaint. Our examination showed, with reference to children under thirteen years of age, that four-fifths were doing well. If properly placed and thoroughly supervised, we are willing to take our full share of these young children in Minnesota.

Mrs. DINSMOOR.—Last winter, as probably all the people of Nebraska know, there was a bill introduced into the legislature asking for a State school for dependent children, modelled after the school in Michigan, which is the leading school of that character in the world, and doing the grandest work. I hope that those present who opposed

that bill will shortly meet Mr. Storrs, and learn from him the effect of that bill on the State of Michigan. Minnesota has opened a school of the same character, precisely the same as that which we attempted in this State. I only wish to call the attention of the people of Nebraska to the necessity of such a school, and to the fact that other States are feeling the same necessity and meeting it.

Mrs. SPERRY.—Is there any one here who has had experience in finding homes for children? I advertise for homes, but I do not like the plan.

Mr. STORRS.—We do so also, but we do not always approve the home. One of the most disagreeable things in connection with this work is to refuse to allow a child to go to families that apply, but an experienced agent soon knows what a family wants a child for. If they want it for a drudge, he tells them they cannot have the child.

Mrs. ADA C. BITTENBENDER asked that Mrs. A. B. Slaughter, superintendent of the Home for the Friendless, Lincoln, might be invited to take part in the discussion.

Mrs. SLAUGHTER.—I have been superintendent of the Home for the Friendless at Lincoln ever since it first opened, and I have learned many lessons in regard to placing children in homes. We have a circular that we send to those who wish to adopt children or receive them into their homes, asking many questions; and in many instances we visit the home, if we are in doubt, before the child goes there. I find that business men will sometimes recommend to me persons as good and responsible whom, on investigation, we find are not to be trusted; and so what we call first-class business men are not always the ones to recommend a home. I have also found that political men are not the ones to recommend families. I have known legislators, after returning to their homes, to send applications for children for other parties, recommending them as being suitable, and upon investigation found that the would-be foster father was in the habit of drinking intoxicating liquors; and we have a rule that we never place a child in the home where liquor is used. We have found some difficulty in ascertaining whether the homes are just the place or not, and we feel it is better not to make out the papers of adoption until we are sure the parties are worthy of the child they wish to receive into their homes. We visit these homes; and, if they are not such as they should be, the parties are required to return the children, and we find them another place. We have placed nearly two hundred children in homes in Nebraska. We prefer that they should be placed in our own State. The interstate commerce bill has crippled our work somewhat; but I am assured that I am to have a pass, and I expect to visit every home where our children are before the cold weather comes, that I may know that they are well clothed and fed and that their surroundings are pleasant.

Mr. ROSENAU.—I have been sorry to observe that here, as in almost all bodies made up largely of the officers of institutions,

repressive work is made prominent, while preventive work is slighted. I would rather see preventive work take up all the time, because, if we do that work properly, we shall not have so much need of the other. What I want to call your attention to particularly is this one thing: that industrial education, as commonly understood, is not properly industrial education. This distinction has been made most accurately by Prof. Adler of New York. He has established in New York a workingmen's school as a type of an improvement in educational means. He shows there how to educate children in the proper way to make them good men and women and to keep them from vice. Industrial education as practised there is nothing but a development of the Froebel system. It begins with the child in the third year, and carries it through the kindergarten until its sixth year. The child then goes into the workingmen's school until its fourteenth year, and to the night school for three years afterward. In that way, the child is well educated. At the age of seventeen, he comes out, with not only an industrial education, but an education equal, if not superior, to that afforded by any high school in America. To give an instance of the way the education of the senses and of the mind is carried on at the same time, I went into the classes in mechanical drawing. The pupils averaged, I should say, eleven years of age, all boys. They were proving that the square of the hypothenuse is equal to the sum of the squares of the other two sides of the triangle. I did not get to that till I was fifteen or sixteen years old. Here were little fellows with drawing paper before them and coloring with India ink, drawing as neatly as any architect's clerk, constructing the squares upon the sides of the triangle, and dividing them up and proving that there were as many on the two sides as there were on the longest side. And they did not require any teacher to keep them at their work. The teacher stood in a corner with me and talked, while the little fellows went on with their work as if the teacher were watching them. The sense of the child was taught by the drawing, its mind by the mathematical problem. Then I went into the classes in natural history, composed of boys and girls from eleven to twelve years of age. They were engaged at that time in the study of a class of animals represented in its largest form by the lobster and in its smallest by the sand-flea. Each one of these children had heard the history of the sand-flea; and each had, in a pair of forceps, a little sand-flea that had been preserved in alcohol. They held the forceps in the left hand, and with the right hand drew the sand-flea upon the paper before them. They were acquiring a knowledge of free-hand drawing at the same time that they were learning natural history. The child's sense was educated by the drawing, and its mind by the study of the animal's habits. The chief merit of the school is that, with less than four hundred children, none of whom is fourteen years of age, because they have not yet graduated the first class, they expend about fifteen thousand dollars a year for salaries. In other words, they believe that it takes a better teacher to instruct younger than older children.

The professor of natural history was selected from the whole United States. They went all over the country till they found the proper man, and so it is with every teacher in the institution. The idea conveyed by that school is that industrial education is all right, but that it must be conducted at the same time with the education of the mind; that our public schools, to be effective, must have a system of industrial training co-ordinate with the education of the mind that is going on every day.

The following resolution was offered by H. H. HART:—

Resolved, First, that the *International Record of Charities and Correction* is hereby designated as the official organ of the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

Second, that the secretaries of the Conference are hereby authorized to endeavor to secure five hundred subscribers for the *International Record* at this meeting.

Dr. A. G. Byers seconded the resolution heartily, and said that he would be responsible for twenty-five subscriptions to the *International Record*. He proposed to put from one to five copies in every county of Ohio, as he believed it to be one of the best means of educating the people of rural communities in regard to organized charities and the treatment of crime.

The resolution was referred to the Business Committee.

Adjourned at 12.30 P.M.

SEVENTH SESSION.

Monday afternoon, August 29.

The Conference met at 2.30 P.M. in Boyd's Opera House, the President in the chair.

A. E. Elmore, chairman of the Business Committee, reported with reference to the resolution offered by Mr. Hart in regard to the *International Record*. The Business Committee recommended that that resolution be unanimously adopted. Mr. Elmore guaranteed fifty subscriptions in Wisconsin. He also announced that by vote of the legislature of Wisconsin he was authorized to subscribe for two hundred volumes of the Proceedings of the Conference.

The report of the Committee on Alien Paupers and Criminals, Dr. C. S. Hoyt, chairman, was read by Dr. Dana (page 192).

A paper on "Alien Paupers, Insane, and Criminals in New York" was read by Dr. C. S. Hoyt (page 197).

A paper on "The Proper Remedy for Defects in our Immigra-

tion System" was read by Philip C. Garrett (page 206), who prefaced it with the following words:—

The paper which I have in my hand was written before I had seen the report of the committee or Dr. Hoyt's paper. My own experience as commissioner of immigration had led me to take somewhat different views from those there expressed. But the fact of not having seen those papers will explain what would seem to be a greater antagonism than really exists, appearing to amount in some passages almost to an attack on them. In point of fact, I do not dissent from the views therein expressed as to the desirableness of excluding paupers and criminals, so far as they can be excluded, from our shores. What I dissent from is the suggestion as to the mode of change and the method of accomplishing it. Yet, after seeing that report, I think that I could assent to all but the first change suggested in the proposed new act of Congress. However, I will read what I have written.

F. B. Sanborn followed with an address on "Regulation of Immigration" (page 212).

DISCUSSION ON IMMIGRATION.

Mr. BIDDLE.—I have been very much interested in listening to the reports which have just been read, more especially that of the committee. It has, however, surprised me. It seems to me that the committee has not gone to the bottom of this matter, as far, at least, as the law of 1882 is concerned. That law was passed by Congress at the suggestion of the boards of charities; and, in order to keep its execution out of the hands of politicians, it gave the enforcement of it to the Secretary of the Treasury, who is charged with the duty of carrying its provisions into effect, so that you cannot have a law which will give more complete authority to one power than the existing law gives. In order, however, to prevent the control of the matter falling into the hands of politicians, a clause was inserted which would seem, from the report of the committee, to be objectionable. That clause provided that the Secretary of the Treasury might have power to enter into contracts with State Boards of Charities to take charge of the local affairs of immigration in the ports within their State, and to provide for the support and relief of such immigrants therein landing as may fall into distress, under the rules and regulations to be prescribed by the Secretary.

It is under that authority that the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States has appointed State boards of charities as commissioners of immigration. Now, we are asked by the report of this committee to petition Congress to pass an act which shall repeal the power given to the Secretary to name boards of State charities as commissioners of immigration. Every rule that is now adopted and every act done by the commissioners has to be submitted to the Secretary of

the Treasury of the United States for his opinion, and he alone gives all the instruction under which the boards act. Before the passage of the present act, the authority which is now vested in State boards of charities was vested in the collectors of the ports; and this is still the case in ports in which there are no State boards of charities. It seems to me passing strange that such a report should emanate from a committee of this Conference, which has heretofore been considered in a peculiar degree the champion and friend of State boards of charities.

Another charge that the committee, in its report, brings against the existing act is that there is no penalty affixed to the violation of its provisions. It is only two or three weeks since the commissioners at the port of Boston directed that a passenger likely to be unable to provide for herself should not be permitted to land. The collector of the port of Boston was so informed. The law provides that, when any person unable to care for himself or herself without becoming a public charge, is discovered among the passengers, the commissioners shall report the same to the collector of the port; and it is made his duty to prevent the landing of such persons. Notice was given by the collector to the consignees of the ship. The following day it was found that that passenger had landed, and no one knew where she was. The collector of the port of Boston had no difficulty in finding that there was a penalty. He turned to the ninth section of the Passenger Act, which provides that it shall not be lawful for the master of any steamship or other vessel to allow any person or persons to come on board of or leave the vessel without permission of the officer of customs who has charge of the vessel. For the violation of this provision, the master of the vessel was liable to a fine of \$1,000. The collector is also authorized by said act to withhold the clearance of any vessel until the provisions of that act are complied with. This penalty was enforced. The officers of the ship soon found that person, and returned her to the vessel from which she had been taken; and she was carried back to the port whence she sailed.

I am at a loss to understand how there could be a greater penalty, if the proper authorities choose to enforce it. These two acts are part and parcel of each other, and have to be read and enforced together. That this act requires to be amended, and that it would be advisable to do so, there is no doubt; but, in my humble opinion, it is not on the lines pointed out by this committee.

Before the passage of the Immigration Act there were a few State laws only to prevent the arrival of convicts, idiots, and paupers within our borders. The Immigration Act has made the law uniform. Since its passage there has been a great change in the character of the passengers arriving at our ports. In the port of Philadelphia, during the year ending June 30, 1886, one hundred and eighty five passengers were returned to the countries whence they came. The effect has been that the steamship companies, not wishing to have the expense of taking them back without pay, cause a rigid scrutiny

to be made among those applying for passage to our ports, and reject all such as are likely to fail to pass our inspection. Despatches have been sent to the port of Philadelphia from Liverpool, inquiring whether, in the event of the sale of tickets to passengers of certain classes, they would, on arriving here, be permitted to land; and, on notification that they would not, the Liverpool agents have been instructed not to allow them to sail. Doubtless, many are landed now who should not be; but I am satisfied that, as a class, those now landing are greatly superior to those who arrived before the passage of this act. This being true at the port of Philadelphia, it is likely to be so at the port of New York and elsewhere.

Whether it would be desirable to recommend that Congress should so amend the laws that the number of immigrants arriving at our ports would be greatly lessened is a serious question. Only a short time before leaving Philadelphia, I was called upon by a gentleman coming, not from one of the new States, in which, from the march of improvement, houses and railroads are building, but from that staid old State of Rhode Island. He was the owner of a large estate, and told me that it was utterly impossible for his neighbors and himself to procure a sufficient number of farm hands to cultivate the lands in that section; that, if I could send him one hundred hands, he would guarantee that every one of them would receive remunerative employment within twenty-four hours. My duties require me to visit all sections of Pennsylvania, and during the present year I have been in almost every county of that State; and, if there is any one thing that I have heard more than another, it is that they are short of labor. This applies not only to the agricultural portions of the State, but also to the manufacturing districts. We who have lately visited Lincoln, and have driven through this great and growing city, know how everywhere labor is in demand, without which this great growth would be impossible. If we restrict emigration, in my opinion, it will not be long before we shall have such a demand for the repeal of such laws that Congress will be unable to resist it.

It has been suggested that, before allowing an immigrant to land in the United States, he should be required to have a certificate from the consul at the port from which he sailed, vouching for his good character. The evidence upon which the consul was to grant this certificate was to be on vouchers furnished by the person desiring to emigrate, from the municipal authorities of his last legal settlement. Does any one suppose that it would be possible for any able-bodied, desirable citizen of Germany, or, indeed, any other continental nation of Europe, to procure from governmental authorities any certificate which would facilitate his emigration from his native country? We all know that these countries are only willing that their undesirable citizens should leave them, and every possible obstacle is used to prevent the emigration of honest, hard-working men and women. I trust that this subject may not be acted on without most careful consideration.

Dr. HILL.—To one who has travelled over this country, it would

seem as though there is a great lack of skilled labor. And to one who examines the character of the immigration into this country, as it manifests itself at the port of arrival, it is evident that we are receiving a class of laboring people who come to our country without understanding the conditions under which they will be expected to work. They bring with them certain characteristics which—good enough, perhaps, in their country—are altogether foreign to ours; and the consequence of this is that in many places labor has not the dignity nor the market value it possessed in times past, when every man who labored expected to receive, and was able to command, ample remuneration for his work. Hence, in a measure, the outcry that there is a glut of the labor market. This foreign labor, clinging closely to the neighborhood of the Atlantic ports, has forced down the market value of work to such an extent that it is impossible for self-respecting American citizens to compete. The American workman demands more than bare food for himself and family. He wants and is entitled to a measure of comfort and social privilege. He feels that labor has dignity, that he is not a *peon*; and, when his rightful demands cannot be granted, he turns to the broad acres of the West, and seeks under new conditions a home for his family. Some effort has been made to protect the American laborer. Something has been done in the line of restriction of undesirable immigration. Much more should be done than has yet been accomplished. Restriction should be based on principle, not on race prejudice.

We should endeavor to restrict the honest class of laborers, those willing to work for an amount of wage not sufficient to maintain a man and his family in comfortable circumstances. But thus far we have applied the rule of restriction only in one direction. On the Pacific coast, it is felt that a large importation of cheap coolie labor is undesirable; and an outcry went out from that coast, which resulted in a prohibition of Chinese immigration. But on the Eastern coast there has been no restriction of any similar class; and European pauper labor has entered into free competition with American labor to the detriment of the latter and to the lowering of the standard of wages below the living scale. We have heard it said that in the iron and coal districts of Pennsylvania there is a scarcity of skilled labor; but, if any approach to remunerative wages were given, it is certain that men to keep the smelting furnaces in operation could be secured. Throughout the country there are multitudes of men who are ready to enter into any form of honest labor, provided they can receive decent compensation. But as long as our ports are open to semi-slave labor, as long as it is possible to bring in laborers who will work for fifty cents a day and maintain a family thereon, you cannot get men, born in this country, who have brains and energy, to enter into competition or to accept employment which degrades them to the pauper level. They naturally drift out West, and take up that magnificent farming country which stretches beyond the Missouri; and thus they give to that section a producing population, which will feed ultimately a large portion of the world. So there are certain

evils connected with unchecked immigration which should be speedily eliminated; but the same rule should be applied to all sections alike, to the East as well as to the West. Immigration which is undesirable, which is immoral, which is degraded, which is contracted for as servile labor, which openly antagonizes our institutions and laws, should be prohibited. No labor which comes under these objections, be it German or Italian, Irish or English, whether it comes from Sweden or from China, should be permitted to have entrance here. The world should be taught that America, while a free country, expects all men to meet upon equal terms, and obey the same laws, and aid in the true development of a common country.

Mr. GARRETT.—I wish to make a practical suggestion on this subject. The number of immigrants arriving at the port of New York is so enormous as compared with all other ports that, practically, the immigration there seems to govern the general question. I think it is because of this that the evils which exist there only, perhaps, are those which seem to be all inclusive. I would like to suggest whether it would not be more efficacious, and more appropriate to the difficulties of the case, if instead of endeavoring to enact a new law, which does not seem necessary except at the port of New York, there should be a new Board of Immigration there. It is a defect in the *application* of the provisions of the present law which allows the entrance of this vast horde of paupers and criminals, with which the almshouses and prisons of New York are filled. That change, with an amendment, or amendments, of the present law, in the direction of some provisions of the proposed law, would cover the ground much better than if an entirely new law were enacted and the old one repealed.

President GILES.—Some years ago, when the State Board of Charities was organized in Wisconsin, we found certain things to exist that troubled us. First, children in the poorhouses. On studying that question, we made up our minds that that ought not to be; and we got legislation to prevent it. Another thing was assisted immigration from the Eastern States. I did not blame those States; for our people had been doing the same thing, helping others to go still further West. But there was, also, assisted immigration from foreign countries. A large proportion of paupers and dependants in our poorhouses are foreigners, and what investigation we have made shows that they are hereditary paupers. Their ancestors were paupers in the old country, and they themselves were assisted to this country. We are not troubled with them so much now as we were some years ago. But here is the trouble in the West,—we are beginning to realize it more and more in Wisconsin, and I presume Iowa, Nebraska, and Minnesota will soon begin to feel the effects of it,—and that is immigration not by way of New York, Boston, or Philadelphia, but up through Canada. Within the last few years, we have had several insane men, that have been assisted from the land of their birth, brought through Canada and sent into Wisconsin. I presume they have them in Michigan. We have some that we cannot

ascertain where they came from. I do not know how this evil can be reached except by certificates from the consul in the foreign country. Let him base his certificate upon the certificate of the local authority through which the emigrant comes. Hold some one responsible on the other side. Let the document be sent to this country with a certificate that the emigrant is neither insane nor dependent, but able to take care of himself. We shall work for legislation that will accomplish this.

Mr. ROSENAU.—I do not know whether it is owing to the lack of proper enforcement of the present emigration laws or a lack in the law itself, but I do know that in Buffalo we suffer very severely from immigration. We have in Buffalo about twenty-five thousand Poles. They began coming in numbers in 1881. The gentleman who prepared the report of the Charity Organization Society called attention to the fact that, unless some steps were taken to prevent it, they would become a permanent burden to the city. In 1885, the number of Poles on the books of the overseer of the poor as receiving relief was double, in proportion to population, that of any other nationality. We were convinced that two-thirds of those who received aid were frauds, but we could not find out anything to warrant us in turning them away. There is not a day that our police court is not crowded with Poles. They are very fond of stealing coal, and our coal companies are compelled to hire special officers to help the police. Yet, in spite of that, they compute their loss at hundreds of tons of coal a year. These Poles earn fair wages for about seven months of the year, and save two-thirds; but, instead of using their savings to carry them through the winter, they send their earnings to Poland, and bring over two or three more families, feeling sure that the overseer of the poor will give them relief. They are just beginning to vote; and one man carries all the votes in his pocket, doing with them what he pleases. Protection against such a class must be guaranteed us at the seaports.

Miss SCHLEY.—I do not see what objection the last speaker can have to a people persecuted in their own country coming to America. They come to better themselves. The Poles have proved themselves in their own history as fine a race as any other; and, when they are downtrodden, they should be upheld by American citizens.

Mr. WRIGHT.—I agree in the main with what Mr. Rosenau has said about Poles,—we have the same problem in Milwaukee,—but I disagree with his application. The trouble is not really with the Poles,—for, of course, they take what they can get,—but with the politicians who distribute the poor relief. I know that to be the case in Milwaukee. I suppose that the self-respect and independence of an American would not allow him to accept poor relief unless he needed it. But many foreigners have not been brought up that way. It is the duty of our institutions to train these people in proper ideas of self-respect. It is the fault of the politician, and not of the people, if too much poor relief is given to Poles or to any one else for political reasons.

Mr. JOHNSON.—I have been told by a gentleman from Buffalo that the Polish laborers of that city are a hard-working, thrifty set of men. Although their work lasts only seven months of the year, and their pay is but \$1.25 per day, they support their families, buy lots, and build themselves homes. I think such laborers are not deserving of the contumely cast upon them. We have a few Poles in Chicago; but there are not many on the relief books of the county agent, I doubt if more than a hundred. It is my experience that there are more frauds among English immigrants in proportion to their numbers than any other nationality. Poland is so interesting a country, its people have such a romantic history, that one cannot but sympathize with these exiles in a strange land, and speak a good word for them when attacked.

Mrs. HILES.—While it is perfectly true that the Poles had something to do with the riot in Milwaukee, I wish to say that the Kosciuszko guards did valiantly; and there were no company of men of whom the press spoke so highly. Having had considerable to do with the labor element, I wish to say that a great many of the Poles in Milwaukee have good homes, and are buying homes constantly, with a very certain tenure. In my dealings with them, I have found them as honorable as any other class of people.

Mr. HOWARD, of Nebraska.—In my charity work, I quite often come across paupers and even criminals who have come from the seaboard with tickets direct to Chicago or Omaha. I want to know if such persons are examined by the Commissioners of Immigration?

Dr. HOYT.—They ought to be.

Mr. HOWARD.—If you will stop them at the ports, we will not complain.

A letter was read from Rabbi S. H. Sonneschein, regretting his inability to attend the Conference, and wishing it great success.

Adjourned at 5 P.M.

EIGHTH SESSION.

Monday night, August 29.

The Conference met at 8 P.M., the President in the chair.

Gen. R. BRINKERHOFF, chairman, made the following report in behalf of the Committee on Time and Place:—

Your Committee on Time and Place beg leave to report as follows:—

At a meeting attended by the representatives of California, Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin, formal invitations were extended to the Conference to hold its fifteenth session at Buffalo, N.Y., at Philadelphia, Pa., and at San Francisco, Cal. Other places were informally suggested by the representatives of Kansas, Indiana, and Maryland.

On call of the roll of States, nine votes were cast for Buffalo, two for Philadelphia, and three for San Francisco.

On motion, the choice of Buffalo was unanimously agreed to; and, on motion of Mr. Rosenau, of New York, the time of holding the fifteenth session of the Conference was left to the Executive Committee.

On motion of F. H. WINES, it was voted that the Executive Committee be directed to hold the next Conference as early in the year as it is possible to prepare for it.

The report of the Committee on Time and Place was adopted.

F. B. Sanborn submitted his report as treasurer (see page following "Minutes and Discussions.")

Before presenting the report of the Committee on Insanity, the chairman, Dr. RICHARD DEWEY, said:—

Before proceeding to the regular business of the Committee on Insanity, I desire to offer a resolution with reference to the death of Miss Dorothea L. Dix, with whose name no one here can be unfamiliar. There is probably no one present who does not well remember her labors, especially during the Civil War, and the wonders that were accomplished by her energy and her power of influencing, directing, and helping leaders in charitable work of every kind. There may not be so many who are familiar with her life-long labors for all classes of the unfortunate, especially for the insane. As early as 1840, or thereabout, she started on a course of labor, the result of which was the founding of institutions for the insane in a large number of States. Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, and other Western States were induced through their legislatures, by memorials presented to them, by her representations of the condition of the insane, uncared for as they were at the time, to make the first beginnings in founding institutions for their care by the State. She accomplished the same work in the New England States as well. The institution at Dixmont, named after her, was largely built by funds which she collected; and all the later years of her life she was in receipt of immense sums, to be used for charitable work in various ways. I had the honor and pleasure of knowing and corresponding with her on matters connected with institutions for the insane. The following is the resolution which I would offer:—

Since the last meeting of this Conference, the decease has been announced of another of the most remarkable and distinguished philanthropists of our day, Dorothea Lynde Dix.

Her life, which was prolonged far beyond the usual span, was one long effort to benefit her fellow-beings. Her most conspicuous field of labor was among the insane, whom she successfully endeavored to bring under State care in some of the larger States of the Union, and whose sufferings she was indefatigable in her efforts to alleviate. In some of the States indeed, she may almost be said to have *founded* the system of hospitals for this unhappy class of our fellow-beings. Nor were her labors limited to her native land; for they were also directed toward inducing the nations of the Old World to adopt similar provisions, accomplishing results abroad, no less than at home, of which her own country may well be proud.

Upon her life falls, like "the dew of heaven," the benediction pronounced upon those who tenderly visit the "hungered, naked, sick, and in prison"; and this Conference desires to record the sorrow and regret with which it has heard of her removal from among us.

Mr. SANBORN.—I had the great privilege of knowing Miss Dix; and, as I come from the State where she was born and where she commenced her labors, I may be allowed to make a few remarks on this occasion. Miss Dix was a native of Massachusetts, in one of the inland counties; and her early life was spent in that State. It was there that she first became interested in the treatment of the insane. The State of Massachusetts, about the year 1830, at the request of many eminent citizens (perhaps Horace Mann is best known among these, outside of Massachusetts), provided a State hospital at Worcester for the insane; but, as soon as it was opened, it was almost immediately filled up, and there still remained in almshouses and jails a large number of the insane poor whose condition was pitiable. Miss Dix about fifty years ago—I think in 1837—presented a memorial to the Massachusetts legislature, calling attention to facts which she herself had investigated and observed in the jails and almshouses of Massachusetts, and praying that something might be done to improve their condition. This was followed up by subsequent memorials, but I think it was not until 1840 that she began her work in other States. I will leave others to speak of the success which attended her efforts in those States and in the United Kingdom. She was able, in consequence of her American work, to render important service to the friends of the insane in improving the lunacy laws of Scotland; but in our own country she labored longest and in the greatest variety of ways. I suppose that we are more indebted to her than to any other single person for public enlightenment on the treatment of the insane during the years 1840–60. Since that time, although Miss Dix has been, in a certain sense, active, yet her increasing years have prevented any considerable activity. But during that very important formative period, 1840–60, no one person was able to do so much as Miss Dix. I knew her only in later years. My personal acquaintance with her began in 1864. She was at that time, and continued so until the last interview I had with her,—which, I suppose, was about 1883,—deeply and warmly interested in the condition of the insane, and particularly in the management of the asylums for their treatment. It was her custom often to visit these asylums,—I frequently met her there and sometimes elsewhere; and I suppose her face was familiar to every superintendent of insane asylums in the Eastern, Middle, and Central Western States during the period of which I speak, from 1860–80. During the latter part of her life, her home was in New Jersey. She had selected Trenton for her residence; and it was there that she died, after several years of illness, which incapacitated her from leaving home. But she continued, almost to the end of her life, her correspondence with superintendents. I think we can all join heartily in the resolution which Dr. Dewey has presented; and it seems to me

this Conference owes it to itself more than to her—for her fame will protect itself—to take this notice of the career of a person so truly useful and so renowned.

Mr. LETCHWORTH.—I deem it a precious privilege to say a few words respecting this remarkable woman, who has recently passed away after a long and useful life. As a citizen and as an officer of the State Board of Charities, I feel it my duty to publicly acknowledge the great service she has rendered to the charities of the State of New York.

Through an examination of the poorhouses of our State, she became acquainted with the forlorn condition of the chronic insane confined in these institutions, and, deeply impressed with the abuses she beheld, memorialized the legislature upon the subject. The better sentiment thus aroused led to further examinations, and, following the report of the State Medical Society through its chief officer, Dr. Willard, the legislature established a State receptacle for this class, known as the Willard Asylum for the Chronic Insane, which was opened in 1869. Here a humane and economical system took the place of former abuses, and a great and beneficent reform was thus effected.

I often visited institutions with Miss Dix; and it was my good fortune to know her intimately and to maintain a correspondence with her, greatly to my benefit, until through the infirmity of years she was no longer able to write. She was a very practical person, of a serious turn of mind; and the earnestness of her manner caused her to be listened to with attention. She seemed always conscious that a greater or less measure of responsibility was involved in whatever she said or did. On one occasion, when I was visiting a large insane asylum with her, after she had gone carefully through it, making inquiries and a critical inspection as she went along, she sat down in the office with the superintendent and others interested, and reviewed the weak points of the institution. These were so clearly and forcibly presented that her counsel was accepted, and the result was a great advance movement in the institution.

This power which she possessed of influencing others by her appeals was remarkable, and was well illustrated in her work in Scotland. When there, a few years ago, I found the following story corroborated, which I had before heard respecting her experience there. It appears that, in visiting the institutions for the insane of that country, she discovered enormous abuses. The farther she progressed, the more she felt the necessity for thoroughness in her examinations; but she was at length brought to a stand by being denied admittance to one of the asylums for this class. She appealed to the chief governmental authority in Scotland to have this decision overruled, but without avail. Becoming now thoroughly aroused, she took the first train for London, though leaving at midnight. On reaching there, she obtained an immediate interview with the Home Secretary, and so thoroughly convinced him of the need of a radical reform in the Scotch lunacy laws and methods of caring

for the insane that he pledged her his influence to secure the appointment of a parliamentary commission for this purpose. Her call upon the Home Secretary was followed by one from the chief officer in Scotland, who left Edinburgh very comfortably by the first morning train, for the purpose of explaining to the Home Secretary the trouble this American busybody "was making over the border." But he was too late. A royal commission was appointed in accordance with the promise made Miss Dix, following the report of which came the enactment of wholesome laws and a radical reform in the whole Scotch system for the care of the insane, so that, from one of the worst, it came to take rank among the best systems of the world.

Another instance of her wonderful power of influencing those in authority is shown in an incident she once related to me of her appealing to a European potentate to extend some extraordinary but needful measures of relief to the insane of his kingdom. She was listened to uninterruptedly to the close, when she was told that what she proposed was impracticable and could not be considered. She declared that it was practicable, and persisted in urging her plea. Finally, her crowned listener, smiling, said, "Madame, it cannot be done." She replied, "It can be done, and it *must* be done." And it was done.

In her practical views, Miss Dix sought an economical adaptation of means to the end desired. I have in mind a large State institution upon which millions of dollars have been expended, that I visited with her when it was in an embryo condition. She saw at once those defects in the plan which involved needless, I may say extravagant, expenditure, and very clearly defined them. Could her advice given at that time have been followed, the government would have saved at least a million of dollars, and had a much better asylum when completed. But the value of this conscientious woman's advice was not in this instance appreciated.

My acquaintance with Miss Dix has led me to believe that she was a most noble woman, possessing those higher attributes belonging only to disinterested and exalted natures; and for this reason I cherish and reverence her memory.

Mr. GARRETT cordially indorsed the resolutions, and moved their reference to the Business Committee, to be reported for the record. It was unanimously voted that this should be done.

Dr. Dewey then presented a paper on "The Colony System of Caring for the Insane, as proposed in Michigan," by Dr. Henry M. Hurd (page 215). In the absence of Dr. Hurd, the paper was read by Dr. W. M. Knapp, of Lincoln, who prefaced it with the following words:—

No one can regret more than myself the absence of the distinguished author of this paper; and, while it might have been read by title and referred for publication, it was thought by the chairman of

the committee to contain subject-matter for thought and discussion which ought to come before this association. I, therefore, certainly shall take pleasure in reading the paper. I take pleasure in reading it also from the fact that I think the paper is altogether too modest in its title. I had the privilege of visiting one of the Michigan hospitals a few weeks since, where this proposed system is in practical operation, although on a limited scale; and I was very favorably impressed with its practical workings, and shall watch for its further elaboration with feelings of interest, knowing that it deals with a question that is of great importance to all the people as well as those who are especially interested in hospital work. This is a great question,—what to do with this large class of chronic insane, who are perhaps not amenable to treatment and yet whose care and custody are desired.

DISCUSSION ON CARE OF THE INSANE.

Dr. DEWEY.—I have just one question in regard to the plan which is detailed in the paper in regard to colonies for the insane. It seems to me that this is a plan which would have great advantages in cases where it was impossible to secure territory enough immediately in connection with the institution to accommodate all its insane. We know that institutions are often so situated that it is impossible for them to acquire any more adjoining land to use; and, in a case of that kind, it seems to me that there would be an opportunity to carry out a plan such as is proposed here. I am inclined, however, to think that all which Dr. Hurd claims for the colony system could be secured without removing the building to such a distance as named, three or four miles from the parent institution from which it is an offshoot. There is another question in my mind as to the expense of construction in preparing buildings for the insane at a distance of three or four miles from the parent institution. You are either under the necessity of building your building precisely like the ordinary dwelling for sane people or of incurring greater expense in order to have what is required for good sanitary condition and good security for insane patients. The water supply, lighting, and heating, in institutions as heretofore constructed are necessarily provided from one common centre from the home institution, but could not be provided with the parent institution three or four miles distant. If it were necessary to provide water and means of light and heat in the same form as ordinarily provided in institutions for the insane, it would become just as great an expense as in the first place. A total new plant would be required, which would bring up the expense.

If the amount of land is sufficient, I hold that the same advantages can be secured by having light, heat, and all those necessary matters attended to from one common centre, and yet sufficient separation can be obtained. The buildings need not be too far remote to be connected with this centre. The breaking up of the asylum into various parts, with buildings specially calculated for the many different

groups of the insane, is a means of providing separation and agreeable surroundings, very desirable in treating the insane. And, now that I am on this subject, I want to make a few remarks suggested by what I have just said in reference to the various groups of the insane. If I could say anything in this new and progressive community, where the plans of providing for the insane have not all been completed, where there is still a great deal to be done, I would like to suggest the fact, which seems to be but little appreciated by the general public, that there are different classes among the insane, requiring different treatment and different construction in the buildings that they occupy. Those acquainted with the insane know well how very diverse are the conditions to be met; while those who do not come in contact with the insane have little idea what is necessary, and seem to think that all the insane are exactly alike, and require the same thing to be done for them,—that all would be dangerous, and liable to perpetrate at any time some deed of violence. This is far from being true. In Massachusetts, the insane are boarded out, a certain class of them, in private families. The harmless, inoffensive insane are able to live in an ordinary building. The criminal insane should have different provision; also those who are subject to epilepsy. There are those who are subject to bodily infirmities, and those who are sick. The plan would be to put different patients in different buildings.

Perhaps I can illustrate that from my own patients. In our main building, which accommodates about four hundred, and which is of great security and fire-proof, are all the dangerous patients and those who are under close medical supervision. Then we have a small hospital building for the sick of each sex; a group of three buildings, accommodating about one hundred, for workingmen; another accommodating forty, with guards at the windows, for runaway patients. All the others have ordinary windows such as we have in our homes. Then there is one building where we have old feeble men, with a man and his wife to take care of them. There are two or three wards that have open doors for the convalescent and for chronic cases of the harmless class. I mention this only to show that it is necessary to make separate provision for the different classes, and new States should bear this in mind in constructing buildings and making provision for the insane.

Dr. BYERS.—Will Dr. Dewey state the maximum number of patients that can be cared for under the colony system, either as presented by the paper or under any system that he would choose?

Dr. DEWEY.—I am not a believer in large institutions. I believe, taking the harmless, inoffensive, and chronic insane, there is scarcely a limit to the number that may, if necessary, be cared for in groups of buildings close together and under one control. Fifteen hundred or possibly two thousand of such patients can be cared for, but I prefer six hundred or eight hundred.

Dr. BYERS.—How much land would be necessary under this system?

Dr. DEWEY.—I think an acre for a patient.

Dr. BYERS.—We want to have our legislators educated up to what is the best system, but there is a great variety of opinion in regard to this subject. I think most superintendents agree that six or eight hundred patients are enough. The legislatures act under economic ideas. In Ohio, we built a large asylum on the congregate system, to accommodate nine hundred, with the expectation that the increased numbers of patients would diminish the per capita cost of maintenance. The result was that it was built on such an elaborate plan that the per capita cost is larger than it is in the smaller asylums.

Mr. HART, of Minnesota.—I have been very much interested with the ideas presented in the paper; and not long since, on a visit to Pontiac, I had a conversation with Dr. Hurd with regard to this idea. In a visit some time ago to a county asylum in Wisconsin, I conversed with a number of patients, and inquired as to their preference for county asylums or State institutions. A certain class seemed to feel greatly relieved to escape the large concourse of patients, and were very much in favor of the county institution. I would like to hear an expression from President Giles on the subject.

President GILES.—I have been very much interested in the paper just read, as it proves to me that the world moves, and that there are States besides Wisconsin profiting by the ideas of the treatment of the insane, having adopted the principle, partially, that we have had in operation in the State of Wisconsin. I am thoroughly in favor of county insane asylums. We have in Wisconsin fifteen of them in operation, and two more are being constructed the present year. We shall never enlarge our State institutions. I do not know of a professional man in the State of Wisconsin or any individual who has given the subject any attention that is in favor of enlarging the State institutions. It was a question for some years what should be done with the chronic insane. As fast as the State hospital was enlarged, it would fill up to its utmost capacity; and still our jails had numerous insane, and there were some in the poorhouse. We first attempted to mitigate the condition of the insane in the poorhouses by instructing the overseers, and we even found that there were many who could be given their liberty. Many that had been regarded as incurable were so much improved by liberty and occupation that they went home, and visited friends. From the start, six years ago, we have cared for our chronic insane in county institutions with occupation and non-restraint. In thirteen out of the fifteen county institutions there is not a door locked from morning till night, and we have some cases that were considered among the worst in the State hospitals. I have no faith in the treatment of the insane in our large hospitals the way it has been practised. It is radically wrong, and my attention was called to it some years ago by a lady who was sent to the State hospital from one of the towns in our State. She claimed to me she was not insane, though she was when brought to the institution. She begged to go home. The matter was brought before the board, and she was sent home. Two years afterwards, I met her; and she described to me her feelings when taken to the institution.

An officer and one or two ladies accompanied her to the institution, where she was received pleasantly by the superintendent, examined in the office, and the supervisor of a ward was sent for. She was sent to such a ward. She was told that this was the room that she was to occupy; and the key was turned, and she was locked in. When supper time came, she was notified supper was ready; and she went down to the supper table heart-sick, and could not eat a mouthful. She returned to her room, and was told she could retire about dark. She did so. She did not close her eyes in sleep that night. She said the thought struck her that she was alone and a prisoner, and for three days she was in that frame of mind. Perhaps in the mysterious workings of her mind this experience had the effect of starting her on the road to recovery. But she said that the treatment she received would, nine times out of ten, render a person permanently insane. I do not believe the chronic insane and the acute insane should be kept in the same building. Our State hospital will never be enlarged, and by the first of January next there will not be an insane person in a single jail or poorhouse in the State of Wisconsin. I would have the State hospital kept to receive every new case; and I would have a sufficient number of skilled, humane, conscientious attendants, and place an attendant with every recent case, to care for them, interest them, till they are used to the place. Suppose it does cost \$10 a week, if you succeed in curing twice as many as you do now! I believe two-thirds of all new cases can be cured by proper treatment. Another advantage in caring for the chronic insane in county institutions is that they are near their friends, who can visit them occasionally. Though these asylums are on the poor-farm, there is no communication between the paupers, and the insane. We consider this county system as the most popular and successful thing that has ever been introduced in our State.

Mr. LETCHWORTH.—What we understand by a county asylum in New York State is an institution established in a county, by a county, and supported by the county. I understand that the county asylums in Wisconsin are semi-State institutions; that is to say, though not under State management, they are under State supervision and control, and the expense of maintaining the inmates is mainly borne by the State. I should like to have the difference explained between what are called county asylums in Wisconsin and what we call county asylums in New York.

Mr. GILES.—The State Board of Charities secured the passage of a law which declared that, whenever any county provided such accommodations for its own insane as were accepted by the State Board of Charities and Reform, they should receive from the State treasury the sum of one dollar and a half a week for the care of each insane person. In order to receive that amount before the 1st of October, they make their report, giving the names of the persons and number of weeks they have been cared for. The State requires the certification of the State Board of Charities and Reform that they have been properly cared for. The board provides rules for managing them

also. In that sense, they are under the State authority. The law requires that they shall be visited quarterly by the board. They are under the management of the county board of supervisors, and they make an appropriation for the erection of the buildings. They are limited to one hundred persons, and they have not cost \$300 per patient.

Col. CHASE, of Nebraska.—If we wished to establish such county asylums in Nebraska, what steps should we take and what legislation should we need?

Mr. GILES.—In Wisconsin, the counties must first get the sanction of the State Board of Charities and Reform for the erection of the county asylums. We have not had the least trouble with county boards.

Dr. BYERS.—Is there any law by which the counties are compelled to transfer their insane?

Mr. GILES.—The law provides that, if a county builds an institution that will accommodate more than there are in that county, they may receive from other counties; and the State Board may transfer them. In that case, the county gets \$3, or \$1.50 from the State and \$1.50 from the county to which they belong.

If we must have State institutions for the insane, the colony system as proposed in the paper is practicable, and comes near our system of county care as practised in Wisconsin. I can see a very great advantage in it over the present congregate hospitals. Let a State get a large tract of land, say from three to five thousand acres, and build a hospital for all acute cases, and locate cottages on different parts of the farm at some distance from each other, each with a separate organization, and limit the maximum number of insane in each to one hundred. Place a practical business man—a first-class farmer with a kind-hearted wife—in charge, and you have my idea of a model State institution for the insane.

Dr. BYERS stated that he had visited the county asylums of Wisconsin, and found that they worked admirably, but that every advantage claimed for the county institutions is accomplished in State institutions, where the numbers are larger and where the medical care is more direct, if the State asylums are what they ought to be. In Athens, Ohio, where there are eight hundred patients, every one that is able to work is employed. It has open doors, and the patients go in and out at their pleasure. They have no restraints. They are not locked in ward or cell. They have no muffs nor straps nor cribs. The result is precisely the same as that claimed for the system of county asylums.

Dr. FLETCHER.—I have had no experience with the Wisconsin system, but I am familiar with it by reading; and my opinion is entirely favorable to it, and rather in preference to the Michigan system of colonization. I am at the head of a large hospital, large because we have but one. We have a daily average of sixteen hundred patients. I have forty-eight wards; and, if I could have them a mile apart, I would like it. Of course, a large number of these insane,

though we call it a hospital, are such as should be kept in an asylum. We have but one hundred and sixty acres of ground, and we could not possibly have room to work more than two or three hundred. The rest are obliged to be taken about the grounds for exercise. In my opinion, if we have a hospital, it should be nothing but a hospital; and the expenditure should not stand in the way. I believe in skilled, well-trained attendants, persons by nature intended to be attendants, and that they should be selected to take charge of the acute cases that come in, to be with them, sleep near them, talk with them, associate with them, and help them along. I think in this way we should have better results than if we had a physician in every ward. I am willing that the medical staff should be absent, if you will give me good attendants. Let us have a hospital for a hospital, and the asylum as far away as you please, to give every one an opportunity to work and take exercise as he will, instead of sitting round on benches by the wall, like a fly pinned up in a collection.

Dr. VIVIAN, of Wisconsin.—Doctors do not always agree, and specialists do not always agree. I suppose, if we get our specialists together, every one will have a different manner for the treatment of the insane. There is one of the questions that has not been touched upon, and that is the economical one. We should consider the question as it affects the tax-payers. With our large and increasing numbers of insane, increasing beyond the proportion of our population, prudence in caring for the insane is getting to be a very important factor. While we boast of the Wisconsin system as being the best system of caring for the chronic insane, that they are more happy, more comfortable than in the State institutions, it is a fact that under the old poorhouse system, wretched and horrible in some respects as it was, a larger proportion of the chronic insane went to their homes cured or improved than from the State institutions, where they are cooped up by the hundred, the thousand. Our county asylums cost to erect about \$300 per capita, for the best of them, and are upon large farms. On these farms, they have abundant occupation. They receive good care. Go into the dining-rooms, and you will see the men and women file in in order, taking their seats quietly and behaving like ladies and gentlemen. Now, what does this system cost? The cost for the last year was \$1.70 per capita per week, falling to \$1.25 a week in some and rising to \$2.25 in others, depending on the size and capacity of the farm. There is another item. The poorhouse being on the same farm as the asylum, the cost of running the poorhouse is reduced probably one-third from the extra labor of the inmates of the asylum. When we are told that these chronic insane people are deprived of intelligent medical supervision, we reply, The persons who make such statements are speaking of that which they do not know. If the colony system of Michigan is to be a success, the cottages will be separated from the main institution from three to five miles. There is not one of our county asylums that is separated from the superintending physician more than three or four miles. As a humanitarian system and as a financial success, the figures speak for themselves.

A DELEGATE.—How do you transfer patients from one asylum to another?

Dr. VIVIAN.—The law says, if a county does not take proper care of its insane, the State Board can remove them to another county, and the county giving them up must pay the cost of transportation and \$1.50 a week for their care, besides clothing them. No county receives State aid unless the State Board approves of the care that the insane have received. The board audits the bills. Our asylums are really semi-State institutions. No county can build an asylum until its plans are approved by the State Board.

Dr. ARCHIBALD, of Dakota.—I cannot see the great advantage of these county asylums lately established in the State of Wisconsin over State institutions properly constructed and managed under State control. Not being personally familiar with the Wisconsin system, I am not quite able to offer an opinion, but understand it to be, in part at least, under State supervision, and for this reason it is successful and economical in its management. In a thickly populated State like Wisconsin, I can see no reasonable objection to hospitals being constructed that will properly care for insane patients belonging to one or more counties, but should object to county control instead of the State. I believe it the wisest policy for all the unfortunate and defective classes to be considered and dealt with as wards of the State, and placed entirely under State authority, believing that in this way all the insane will receive greater watchfulness, and, upon the whole, better treatment. Our hospital is built on the cottage plan, the administration building being used only for officers, the patients all being in detached wards, which plan, with us, has proven entirely satisfactory. In the three years that I have been there, we have had two hundred and fifty inmates, and never have had occasion to use barred windows, and have had no escapes for want of them, although we have had as severe cases as are usually sent to insane hospitals. I speak of this because it seems unusual to have treated this number without even a single protection to a window. I am in favor of detached cottages, so arranged as to best care for the different classes of insane, and in this way to better classify and wholly separate the different classes of inmates, and also to have a cottage hospital especially adapted to caring for the sick and infirm, where they, too, can have quiet and careful nursing; but again I must confess that I cannot see the great superiority claimed for the county hospital over the State institutions, properly constructed and managed by State authority.

A DELEGATE.—How large are your detached wards?

Dr. ARCHIBALD.—They accommodate from fifty to seventy-five inmates. I think that wards to care for from seventy-five to one hundred are desirable-sized buildings, and, instead of using grated windows in our wards, I would recommend extra attendants. It may be a little more expensive. Expense, however, should be a secondary consideration when compared to good or bad results in restoring these unfortunate sick people to reason. The cottage system, it seems to me,

has advantages over the *old style* building, and affords the same advantages as are desired from the colony plan in question without the discomfort and inconvenience of extreme separation from the administration part of the hospital, where it must necessarily remove the better classes of convalescing patients from the privileges of the various forms of amusement usually provided for at such hospitals; and especially would this be true in cold climates. A colony system that would provide for pleasant summer resorts, whereby the more acute cases could, under proper supervision and care, be given a change in scenery and surroundings, would seem to me a step in the right direction, and would do more toward bringing about convalescence in many cases than could be reached in almost any other way. In Dakota, where the weather is comfortably cool, the cottage plan, such as we have, is *colony* enough. We have six hundred and forty acres of land, and can have patients go to any part of the farm without detriment or waste of time, and have as much quiet in our wards as if they were three or four miles apart. I am not in favor of county asylums for the insane, excepting when placed under State control and supervision. Neither am I in favor of the colony system because it may prove a little less expensive per capita, unless it will also bring better curative results, and prove as comfortable and beneficial to even the incurable insane inmates.

Mr. GARRETT thought there were two classes of patients that might profitably be removed farther from the main building than was usually the case,—the convalescents and the extremely light cases, those on the border of insanity.

Dr. KNAPP, in closing the discussion, said that in his institution at Lincoln he opened the doors for all who would work. His experience was that to open the doors for all was simply to educate a set of loafers to be turned out on the world. He made employment a consideration for freedom. The one thing which is absolutely necessary for making a certain class of insane contented, happy, and quiet, is employment.

A paper on "Training Schools for Attendants for the Insane" was read by Dr. Dewey (page 221).

Adjourned at 10.45 P.M.

NINTH SESSION.

Tuesday morning, August 30.

The Conference met at 9 A.M., the President in the chair. Prayer was offered by Rev. H. H. Hart.

Reports from States were continued. The report from New Jersey (page 62), prepared by Dr. Ezra Hunt, and of the District of Columbia, prepared by Mrs. Sara A. Spencer (page 30), were read by Mr. Wines.

The report from Colorado, made by Mrs. J. S. Sperry, was read by Mr. W. C. Sampson (page 23). The report from Dakota was read by Rev. J. M. McBride (page 28). The report from California (page 21), made by Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, was read by Mr. C. T. Dooley, to which he added the following statement : —

Mr. E. T. DOOLEY, California.—There is in our State no institution for either dependent or delinquent children (excepting the newly started asylum for the feeble-minded) that is under the control of the State; yet there are about forty-two hundred children confined in such places, and their support is mainly from the State treasury. You may say that eighty-five per cent. of these children are supported entirely by the State, since eighty-five per cent. of the full support of them all is drawn from the State appropriation. These children are retained in our private asylums (and they are all simple houses of detention, differing in no essential respect from one another) just as long as money can be had from the State treasury for their maintenance. The State can have no knowledge of the condition, workings, or results of any of these institutions; and the demands upon the fund are invariably paid, as sworn to by the representatives of the asylums, unless some clerical discrepancy be discovered in the papers. What all this means you can well understand; and that it will be very difficult to change such a condition of affairs—where private interest has so much at stake—must be obvious enough. We have about three thousand insane in our two asylums. There is about completed an asylum for the treatment of the chronic insane. The institution at Napa was intended for five hundred patients: it has a population of fifteen hundred. The same remark will apply to the other institution at Stockton. Our county jails all over the State are of the very worst kind, with men, women, boys, and girls indiscriminately herded in them. The moral or sanitary necessities of their inmates seem never to be considered. They are simply "corralled," and held until legally discharged. The only institution we have of a public nature between the courts and our State prisons—for boys and girls—is the so-called Industrial School of the county of San Francisco; and no one out our way pretends that it is a desirable place, or more desirable than either of the State prisons, for any unfortunate boy or girl, under any circumstances. Every grand jury of San Francisco but one, since I have been a resident of the State, has unsparingly condemned it; but so long as we are in the hands of the politicians and their criminal allies, so long as there is an appropriation of forty-two thousand dollars per annum to divide among them, this trouble will continue. They have a very high wall about it, and it is conducted in all respects like an adult prison, with its armed watchmen and guards; and, owing to their surroundings and treatment, it would be difficult to find a more forbidding-looking set of boys. Every year or two there is a clean sweep from superintendent down to dish-washer; but, after all, under the circumstances, that is a desirable and hopeful point. Our

State prisons (there are two of them) have a population of nineteen hundred, the one at San Quentin having over twelve hundred inmates ranging in age from twelve to ninety years. At one time, I counted there above forty boys under seventeen. One of them had not yet reached his twelfth year. I managed to secure his pardon, after more than a year's endeavor, though the judge who committed him would not join in the petition,—he "could not stultify himself"; and you have no idea what an ado it made in the State. I was setting myself up to be "wiser than judge and jury, trying to undo the work of the courts." I have had the boy a year and a half since, and he seems to be doing pretty well. Before every session of the legislature during the last six years, we have gone with a bill for a State Board of Charities. Each time we secured a favorable "committee" report, but got no farther; though I spent a month of my time last winter at our State capital, in the interests of such a bill. It will come, however. The trouble is our people have been very indifferent on these questions, but they are becoming aroused. We have progressed from the stage of *indifference* to the more hopeful one of *opposition* to these things; and, by the normal process, I think we are approaching the period when we shall be able to move briskly along, supported by a wholesome, intelligent public sentiment.

Mr. WINES, in announcing that the reports from States were finished, asked Dr. Horace C. Taylor, of New York, to say a word with regard to the organization of the superintendents of the poor in that State, as supplementary to the report from New York.

Dr. TAYLOR.—The convention was held at Babylon, Suffolk County, on the border of Long Island. To us was very agreeably made known the fact that, notwithstanding the old song, "Babylon is fallen," it was not fallen at all, but on the contrary was still in existence, and in most excellent preparation for our reception and entertainment. The convention was very largely attended, not only by superintendents of the poor, but by representatives of various charity organizations of the State, men and women of large hearts and philanthropic natures. The reports as presented and discussed were a source of great pleasure to me, and I doubt not to the large audience assembled in the hall. In the main, these reports evinced a large acquaintance with the subject under consideration; and the discussions that followed these presentations were still farther evidence of earnestness and of a strong underlying stratum of sentiment that must and will crop out somewhere. The convention was so well attended, the papers presented and the discussions were of such a high order, that it was remarked by those that claimed to be in a position to know that the last two conventions were a decided advance on all former conventions, and very nearly equal to the National Conference. Of course, we are not claiming this comparison; but I say this to show our friends here from the various States of the Union that the members of the State Convention of Superintendents

of the Poor of the Empire State are manifesting an earnestness in regard to the great work of charity and the reform of charity appliances as never before, and it is a source of pleasure to me to be able to state the fact.

The great underlying principles of the reports presented were not new, but were in some sense newly vamped, and presented under new lines of thought. They were:—

On Counties, Towns, and Charitable Institutions, by Superintendent John P. Frazier, of Ontario County.

On Sanitary Condition of Almshouses and their Water Supply, by Dr. Stephen Smith, State Commissioner in Lunacy, of New York City.

On the Obligation of the Public to the Dependent and the Helpless Classes, by Dr. E. H. Howard, warden of Monroe County Insane Asylum, Rochester.

On the Prevention and Cure of Pauperism, by Dr. N. C. Husted, of Tarrytown on the Hudson.

On the Dependent Children of the State outside of New York City, by Miss S. E. Minton, chairman of the Committee on Children of the State Charities Aid Association of New York City.

Immigration and Migration, by Superintendent George E. McGonegal, of the city of Rochester.

On the Increase of Insanity: Its Cause and Prevention, by Dr. S. H. Talcott, superintendent of the Homœopathic State Insane Asylum at Middletown.

On Legislation, by Superintendent C. W. Fuller, of the city of Buffalo, Erie County.

Yes; and there was another very fruitful source of discussion, that I ought not for a moment to forget,—that nondescript, that excrescence on the surface of society, that for the want of a better name we denominate *tramp*. So you will see that we were extremely busy for the entire three days of the convention. We absolutely refused to drop our work even for an hour, and accept an invitation to an excursion across the bay, to partake of a collation of bluefish and clam chowder. But you must not suppose that we were unmindful of the great honor done us in this thing. It was a tempting bit of good cheer thrown in to relieve the tedium of our work, and it would not have been human to disregard it. So we kept it well in mind, and profited by it after the close of the convention. But, as things are now trending, the reports on "Immigration and Migration" and on the "Dependent Children of the State" were of exceptional value, and more especially to us of the State of New York, when our location is considered. You know, Mr. President, that New York is a city of considerable dimensions. It is like the maw of the British Empire in the past, ready to dispose of all that comes within its reach. Brooklyn may yet be made a part of it, and I am not quite certain but it will absorb the whole of Westchester County and a part of Connecticut. Its locality is at the delivery end of the nozzle of an immense imaginary funnel, whose disc is open seaward, gathering

in vast numbers from the nationalities of the Old World, thousands of them sent hither as paupers and criminals, and many of them insane, to eventually people our almshouses and asylums. Thousands of them are furnished railroad tickets at somebody's expense, and under somebody's direction are sent out into the adjoining counties,—in fact, to the counties in the extreme sections of the State,—most of them to become a burden upon society. All this was enough to make the question interesting and discussion very decisive, and was the occasion of the passage of resolutions calling upon the national government to institute in some form a stringent blockade against the transportation of these objectionable classes to our shores by the governments of the Old World.

The report on the dependent children of the State was one well digested and extremely well written, and ought to find a place on the table of every family in the land. The fact is we must save the children if we would save the world. The millennium will never dawn from any efforts, however sincere and prolonged, to save the old and hardened classes. As a rule, the chronic pauper is beyond our reach. He must be allowed to live his day and be gathered to his fathers, but his offspring ought to receive our special attention. Herein lies our hope of success. I believe the coming boy may now be in the ranks of pauperism. I believe the coming girl may now be, possibly, a rag-gleaner in the streets of some of our cities or large towns, bareheaded, barearmed, and barefooted. There is a certain kind of energy, a certain kind of independence, about this class, when properly directed, that will speedily bring them to the front. The elasticity of our social system will admit of all this, and more. The sentiment throughout the State in regard to these two questions specially—immigration and migration, and the saving of the children of the poor—is becoming more and more pronounced,—in fact, it is a growing one. Our State Convention of County Superintendents of the Poor, which has already absorbed nearly every agency in the State for the dispensing of charity, public or otherwise, and is now engaged in an effort to gain the active co-operation of the boards of supervisors of the various counties of the State, is from year to year taking advanced ground, is becoming a power in the State,—in fact, is so now; and the good yet to be done through this agency is, I believe, beyond computation. But in order to the accomplishment of any good, as against such an array of evil as exists in this world, there must be infused into every effort a certain and positive energy, that knows of no yielding so long as an evil exists. *Promptness and earnestness* is a motto I put forth in my opening address at the late convention; and I believe it is the only sentiment, properly balanced, that will enable men to work out this great and perplexing problem of our social existence. No half-heartedness will ever turn back the tide of pauperism that, like a flood, seems rolling in upon us.

In the absence of the chairman of the Committee on Schools for Defective Classes, no report was made on that subject, and but a

single paper read, that on "The Care and Training of the Feeble-minded," by Dr. F. M. Powell, of Glenwood, Iowa (page 250). This paper was followed by remarks by Rev. M. McG. Dana, D.D., of St. Paul, Minn.

Dr. DANA.—We are just beginning to learn how to deal with defectives. When in England, I visited the institution at Darenth, in the vicinity of London. I found therein accommodation for between six and seven hundred imbecile children. It was built on the block system, an approximation to the cottage system, with long wings and L's, and each division under a man and wife as care-takers, so that the inmates are provided for in this family method. Manual training also was developed to a very creditable extent. The children here are from the pauper class mostly, and among them are found all types and extremes of imbecility. I was also struck with the grade of workers; for not only were specialists, like Drs. Beach and Cobbold, at the head of these schools in Great Britain, but the character of the teachers was noteworthy. They were cultured ladies, earnest and sympathetic, showing, too, a degree of interest that I think is exceedingly hopeful for the future. For, of all classes that we are called upon to care for, I think these are the most dependent and pitiable; and almost any one would naturally shrink from engaging in such a work. I certainly saw at Darenth the most repulsive human faces that I ever beheld, and all sorts of abnormal beings, epileptics, etc., gathered from the poorest districts and families in London. They were, however, admirably classified; and the institution was managed with rare skill and success. There are large grounds connected with it, so that some of the inmates are trained in farm life as well as taught in other directions. They all practise calisthenics or gymnastics in a large rotunda, with apparatus of every kind, where the children can be gathered during the day for games or for rest and retirement. The institution at Earlswood is the largest one in England for private patients. Those who are admitted are selected from candidates nominated by the contributors. It is an immense institution, with beautiful grounds, where all the refinements of a Christian and cultured home are found under the care of Dr. Cobbold, an accomplished specialist in this line of service. There are patients there of even high rank availing themselves of the manual training provided and the advantages of the school. After visiting these institutions, I came back to this country with a fresh impression of how largely Providence is seemingly directing this work, and impressing the necessity of it on the hearts of our own people. The State has the deepest possible interest in it on the ground, first of all, of its economic aspects; for, of all classes that we can least afford to neglect, certainly this is the one. They need not only to be brought into institutions and carefully trained and guided for the purpose of helping such as are improvable, that they may be returned to their homes to be something of a comfort, but the incurable cases especially require to be treated as life subjects and society protected from the propagation of their kind. On the

other side, the humane aspect of the work appeals to every one. This helpless class, blighted in reason, with all the hopes that lend beauty to the life we are living gone for aye, with mind imprisoned and senses stunted, should find in our institutions all the help it is possible to give them. The institution at Lakeville, over which Dr. Knight presides, is another instance of how much is being done to surround these subjects with everything that can make life, so far as it is possible to them, attractive and enjoyable. I am very glad that we have heard from Dr. Powell so much in detail in reference to the characteristics of this class. We want to understand a little more of their physiological defects and needs, of their erratic tendencies, the unfortunate conditions to which they owe their existence, that our sympathies may more intelligently and much more widely and rapidly be enlisted in their behalf. It burdens me when I think that over sixty thousand are not yet provided for in public or private institutions, particularly when we know that, if we could only have them under medical care and amid the privileges so wide and varied of these institutions, we could measurably better their condition and prevent the fearful increase of this unhappy and helpless portion of humanity.

A paper on "Boards of Trustees of State Institutions, their Appointments, Duties, and Relations to Superintendents," by Mr. R. A. Mott, of Faribault, Minn., was read as follows:—

Between the State and the charitable and educational and reformatory institutions which it creates, it is the fashion to place boards of trustees or directors, clothed by law with power to build up, direct, supervise, and develop such institutions.

The powers usually conferred upon such boards may be fairly illustrated by our Minnesota law. I quote the fourth section of the act:

Said directors shall have the general management and supervision of said institute; shall prescribe all rules and regulations for the government thereof and the admission of pupils thereto, and generally perform all acts necessary to render the institute efficient for the purposes for which the same is established, to wit: the relief and instruction of the deaf, the blind, the feeble-minded, and for the care and custody of the epileptic and idiotic of the State; and they may introduce and establish such trades and manual industries as in their judgment will best train their pupils for future self-support.

Having been for nearly twenty-five years a member of a board of directors having in charge, from their first organization, a State school for the deaf, another for the blind, and an institution for idiots, imbeciles, and epileptics, united under the name of "The Minnesota Institute for Defectives," I know of no better way of appointing boards of trustees than by gubernatorial appointment and senatorial confirmation, with individual terms of not less than five years, expiring alternately. The number exclusive of *ex-officio* members should seldom exceed five. They should be chosen from the broadest, best

business men of the State, without reference to political or religious proclivities; men of genuine human sympathies, who can afford and will devote all necessary time and thought to their work; men competent to judge of and decide wisely questions of location, plans of buildings and grounds, architecture, landscape work, trades, and all questions of finance. They must be good judges of men; practical, not mere theorists. Men possessed of a mania for experiments and reform in statistics, reports, drainage, heating, lighting, ventilation, and machinery, may be useful, if kept in a positive minority.

There should be associated with such appointed boards, as *ex-officio* members thereof, the governor and the chief financial State officer, styled in our State "auditor."

When a board is thus created, it should be clothed with large discretion in the details of its work. The State, through its representation, should limit the cost, prescribe general rules to guide the managers of the institutions, and require certain general results; but within such rules there should be such elasticity that the work can be carried on without galling friction, and then the board should be held to the strictest accountability, especially in finance.

No man would pinch the public dollar harder than I, and I care not how many committees are created to watch and report the process. But when it becomes their business to tell me when to pinch, where to pinch, how hard to pinch, and what to pinch for, and whether the dollar shall be turned over to the salary department, the school supply department, the repair department, the shop department, the food department, or the general current expenses, before I may subject it to the pressure and, when the dollar shall have departed, that I shall report monthly or bi-monthly on five different exhibits, whether it was exchanged for labor, meat, milk, pumpkins, or pepper, and how much per pound, I beg leave to be excused. No such hectoring system ever contributed to the purity or economy of institution service. It is, in fact, expensive and demoralizing.

The officers working without pay should be as free, at least, as our ordinary laborers. We say to our axeman: "There is the forest, pick your tools. Chop or saw, work with right hand or left; split with axe, wedge, or glut; quit early or late: only give us good measure,—at least eighteen cords per week." And we would never seriously think of appointing a board of experts to wander through the underbrush, and advise when, where, and how to cut, split, and cord.

Boards of direction have reposed in them a twofold trust,—one on behalf of the State, the patron, and another for the beneficiaries themselves. Out of the former relation grow their duties to the State, which may be classified as:—

1. Strict obedience to the law. This is axiomatic. Trustees are the creatures of legislation, and derive not only their existence, but all their powers therefrom; and to attempt in any measure to exercise any jurisdiction, or do any acts not expressly or by necessary implication provided for by law, is usurpation, and leads to embarrassment, confusion, and scandal.

2. To disburse the money appropriated and not a dollar more, with rigid economy, solely for the purposes intended by the grantors.

The institutions we have under consideration are those sustained by taxation; that is, a contribution exacted by the State from persons and property for public use. These exactions in this country, in the aggregate, are enormous; and the proportion of the gross amount which we devote to the relief of defective or suffering classes is unparalleled in the history of the world. No more solemn duty was ever imposed on any man than that resting upon our trustees that these funds, so generously given, shall be disbursed honestly, faithfully, and without waste. And I desire here to say, with emphasis, that boards of trustees cannot avoid this trust,—they cannot shift the responsibility upon others. They must defend and expend these funds under their direct authority. They may not delegate this trust to committees, superintendents, or even the angels in heaven.

3. To make clear, simple, and ample reports of all their doings, in such manner that they can be easily measured by the public eye, together with suggestions of such further action as seems to them wise and practical.

The classes entitled to relief through public institutions hold the relation thereto of *cestui que* trust; and to them the trustees are under the gravest obligations to administer the affairs thereof with wisdom and fidelity, and to make the best possible provision for their improvement and happiness.

One of the most delicate and important duties of a board of trustees (in cases where they have the choice) is the selection and appointment of superintendents. A failure here is a great calamity, and may blight the work for years; while the exercise of wisdom in their selection and the proper adjustment of their surroundings and relations to institutions and boards insure success. No specific rules can ever be formulated or adapted to regulate these relations. The division of the functions and jurisdiction of the several officers of any institution depends largely upon the circumstances of the case. But I think the following rules will generally apply:—

1. A superintendent should not disburse the funds or have any financial responsibility in his institution. This should be done by some one under the direction of the board, to whom there should be direct and strict accountability.

2. He should not, of his own motion, interfere with or attempt to influence legislation or be an official member of legislative lobbies; but in these things he ought to be a consulting and advising officer of the board.

3. No sectarian or party preferences should be allowed to influence his work. He should carefully avoid nepotism. He should have full control of the domestic, educational, religious, and sanitary departments of his work, and to this end should choose and nominate all his subordinate officers, teachers, medical attendants, and employees of his household, and retire them at his pleasure; and generally should have control of the shops and industrial pursuits.

4. When a good man is found, the tenure of his office should be permanent. It is for this object largely that I would divorce him from all financial and legislative responsibility, although there are other sufficient reasons for the rule. Let any superintendent undertake to buy the supplies for his institution and disburse its funds, or be active in controlling its legislation, working to put this man on or keep that man off the board of trustees, and you may confidently predict future trouble and a short term. Only for failure should he be subject to removal.

5. He should be well paid, and all his perquisites be as specific and definite as his salary.

6. He should receive the co-operative sympathy and support of the board in every branch of his work. Questions often arise in this division of labor and duty, which can only be decided in each case by the court of common sense, such as: Should the superintendent be on the building committee? Should he decide as to location, size, cost, and plans of buildings, and the laying out of grounds? Should he buy the horses and cows, etc.? My answer is: If he know more about such matters than the board, *yes*; if not, *no*.

There should be such pleasant, confidential relations between the superintendent and the board that, in all things pertaining to the interests of their work, either will gladly receive or duly consider suggestions and advice from the other. All questions of mere etiquette should be subordinate to the ultimate good. Where there is eternal jealousy, strife, and antagonism, the power is exhausted by friction, and the machine is weak.

Above all, let the board see that the morals of the institution under its charge are above reproach, and let immorality in any person connected with them be sufficient ground for removal.

Mr. WINES.—I suppose that with some of the statements which have been made in the paper just read we all agree. With some of them we shall probably all disagree. Knowing Mr. Mott as well as I do, and that he is a man of marked idiosyncrasies, I am not surprised at the ground he takes. He would not intrust public funds to the angels in heaven, though I do not know that any one has ever seriously proposed doing that. The fact is that in Minnesota they have a peculiar organization of their three institutions at Faribault under a purely local board of trustees,—something that I do not believe in, under any circumstances. I believe that the Illinois law on this point should be adopted everywhere; namely, that no two trustees should be appointed from any one county in the State. This local board of trustees has the charge of all three institutions and of the expenditures for each, which are made from a common fund. Mr. Mott is the secretary of the board, and its executive officer. You will readily see that the secretary is a man of large power, and naturally he does not want to give up or share that power. As to sharing it with the superintendent, he says that the superintendent should be absolutely under the control of the board, and that the board alone should have

anything to say about the management of business or the expenditure of money. But when it comes to the question of putting a Board of Charities over him, to see that he adopts some line of policy which he has not originated himself, he says, "I don't want it, and it is an insult to me to make me accountable to a State Board." There is some human nature in that! Mr. Mott is a very bright man, and this is an interesting paper; but I should be very sorry to have it go out from this Conference with any indorsement on our part. I am very sure that the Conference does not approve of his position.

The report of the special committee appointed to draft a resolution in memory of Mr. Barwick Baker was made by Hon. William P. Letchworth, chairman.

MR. LETCHWORTH.—The committee to which was assigned the task of preparing an expression of the Conference respecting the death of Mr. Barwick Baker presents the following memorial, and recommends that it be recorded in the proceedings of the Conference:—

MEMORIAL.

The members of this National Conference of Charities and Correction, conscious of the great loss the cause of charity and reform has sustained in the decease, since their last meeting, of T. Barwick Lloyd Baker, Esq., of Hardwick Court, Gloucester, England, desire to place upon the records of this Conference some expression of their earnest sympathy in the mournful event.

We recall, with much satisfaction, that in the work of preceding Conferences Mr. Baker was deeply interested; and that his contributions, drawn from a large experience, opened new fields for profitable reflection. The large success attending the great measure of reform which Mr. Baker was instrumental in establishing in his own country has given wide reputation to the principles he advocated; and, to the extent to which they have been and may be incorporated in the correctional system of our own country, we wish to acknowledge the obligations he has laid upon us.

In Mr. Baker we recognized a co-worker possessing sound judgment and an intuitive perception of that which was practical and useful. We conceived him to be one who, while working in the line of pure benevolence, was inspired by the highest motives in all that he did. The example of one whose whole life was a prolonged effort to benefit mankind is precious to us; and, while deploring the loss of that wise counsel which can emanate only from a source so pure and disinterested, we take this opportunity to record our veneration for the memory of this noble philanthropist.

Mr. Letchworth, after presenting the memorial, added the following remarks:—

In the subject of this memorial we find a rare character, one that can justly be appreciated only by personal acquaintance with the busy routine of his daily life. Here we behold a man possessed of large landed estates, having a handsome income, surrounded with all the accessories of luxurious and elegant living, keenly susceptible to the

enjoyment of outward sense, and occupying a high social position, devoting his whole time to works of usefulness, in which are involved patience-trying, never-ending details. In Mr. Baker we find the ideal, old-fashioned English squire, discharging his multitudinous duties conscientiously, mindful of his obligations to society, to the State, and to the Church.

With the opportunity of exclusively enjoying aristocratic associations, his hospitality was extended to the humblest as well as the highest engaged in philanthropic work; and at Hardwick Court he drew into friendly confidence and co-operation those who desired to further the interest of humanity. To this may be largely attributed his success in projecting, if not establishing, some of the important movements of his time. He was the reputed founder of the British Association for the Promotion of Social Science, a recognized reformer of the system of poor-law relief, and a leader in the reconstruction of the English prison system. He was active in the preliminary legislation necessary to the establishment of reformatory schools throughout England and Scotland, and one of the first to establish a reformatory school for boys, which he did on his own estate in Gloucestershire, and which is still in successful operation, having accomplished a vast amount of good at no slight pecuniary sacrifice to its original projector.

Americans consider themselves the busiest and hardest-worked people in the world. Let us see what a conscientious country squire may take upon himself to do with business-like thoroughness. As a magistrate, Squire Baker attended regularly the courts of quarter and petty sessions, looked after certain police matters, and, through the Highway Board, the ordering of bridges, the repair of highways, and other public business. As inspector of the county prison, he had occasional visits and reports to make thereon. He was chairman of the board of the pauper lunatic asylum of the county, and of the Barnwood Lunatic Asylum. He was a member of the Board of Guardians of the Poor, a member of the local Board of Health, of the Hospital Committee of the Workhouse, a commissioner of taxes, a member of the School Board, treasurer of three parish schools, a manager in the savings bank, in the Artisans' Building Society, secretary of the School of Art, committee-man in several Provident and Friendly Societies, etc. Besides discharging the manifold duties incumbent upon these varied offices, he found time, with the aid of his accomplished wife, to entertain, most hospitably and delightfully, a wide circle of friends.

Mr. Baker felt that, whatever position one occupied in the world, he could not escape the responsibility for the discharge of his obligations to the public, and that idleness in any position in life was inexcusable. In a letter, written me in a trembling hand a short time before his death, he said: "You call me 'the old squire,' as many do; and I am glad of it, for I like the title. It means properly one who, having sufficient private property to content himself without working for more, is able and willing to give much of his time and

work (and some of his money) to benefit the public, without pay. It is a useful and honorable and eminently happy position. . . . At the same time, we must allow that there is a grander character than the squire. We who have inherited money and have no need to work for it are almost bound, not by law, but by conscience, to strive to do something to deserve it. But when a man of comparatively small means is working honorably and rightly in a bank or commercial business for pay which he requires, and yet finds time and thought and energy to do grand public unpaid work, this is noble indeed. Of such men America seems to have many."

In watching the public career of Mr. Baker, one could not but note his earnest zeal, coupled with modesty, his simple directness, his love of truth, his pure benevolence, and be filled with admiration of his many noble qualities. But only in the midst of his family could we fully see those gentle, genial, happy traits of character, and those evidences of exalted virtue, which caused all those who knew him in his home life, as I did, to love and revere him.

Gen. R. BRINKERHOFF, in support of the resolutions, said: In the death of Barwick Baker, the world has lost a man who, in some lines of philanthropic work, and in results accomplished, has had no superior, and but few equals, during the generation in which he lived.

From the time that he became a magistrate in 1833, at the early age of twenty-six years, to the time of his death, Dec. 10, 1886, he was identified with every progressive movement in dealing with the dependent or criminal classes; and to his personal and persistent efforts England is largely indebted for her present advanced position upon these subjects.

His special field of work, in which he put into practical operation his ideas of reform, was his native county of Gloucestershire; and Hardwicke Court, his hospitable home was always a welcome meeting place for those interested in philanthropic work. As to the extent and character of his work, a brief extract from the *Gloucester Chronicle*, published on the day succeeding his death, will give us a fair outline:—

"Half a century ago, he was appointed a visiting justice at the county jail; and in this apparently not very important though useful office, held by hundreds of other country gentlemen until the prisons were transferred to the State, is found the 'moving why' of his career of public usefulness. In Gloucester jail, under the auspices of Sir George Paul, was developed that great work of reform which had been commenced by Howard. The prison became a model for almost the whole world; and delegates were sent from the continent, and from, at that time, very far distant America, to acquire a familiarity with the system pursued here, and take it back to their own country for adoption. It was at this period that Mr. Barwick Baker became a visiting justice. But he was not a mere casual official visitor, perfunctorily inquiring whether the rules were observed or

redressing the grievances of officers or prisoners. Being brought into almost daily association with criminals, the necessity of making sentences deterrent as well as punitive soon presented itself to his mind as a problem to be solved. To this he devoted years of study and labor; and he lived to see in our system of dealing with criminals many and vast improvements, which he had striven to effect,—notably in the establishment of police supervision of offenders after their liberation. Again, it was largely owing to his witnessing young criminals sent to jail time after time, and thereby educated and prepared for the hulks and convict settlements, that he was led to found—or rather to revise—the Reformatory School, out of which has since sprung the Industrial School system. In the administration of the affairs of the county asylums, the infirmary, and other public institutions, Mr. Baker took an active part. He was a chief founder of the Social Science Congresses; he founded the Annual Congress of Poor Law Guardians for the West Midland District; and he originated, and for a time carried out in this county, a plan which has become known as the Berkshire system for the suppression of professional vagrancy and the help of the honest tramp in search of work.

“Mr. Baker was intensely earnest in reference to these great social improvements with which his name was associated. He travelled thousands of miles to be present at the Social Science, Prison, and other Congresses; and on one occasion, at the request of the court of quarter sessions, he went to Stockholm to represent Gloucestershire at a prison congress, which was attended by delegates from almost every country in Europe and America.”

In England, perhaps, Mr. Baker is best known in connection with his labors for the creation of reformatories for delinquent children. Nearly a hundred years ago, a school for the reclamation of young criminals was attempted to be founded in London, and one or two similar institutions were afterwards started; but, from causes into which it is not necessary to enter, they failed. Speaking in a meeting at Gloucester five-and-thirty years ago, Mr. Baker said that the seeing of children in prison, time after time, had occasioned him great pain, and he had thought much as to whether it could not be remedied. One day, the Honorable Miss Murray, maid of honor to the queen, called his attention to the possibility of reclaiming vicious children, and said that, if he would bring to her any child that had sufficient strength of character to distinguish itself in vice, she had no fear that she should not be able to make that child distinguish itself in virtue. She urged him to visit a school then established in London. He did so, and became warmly interested in it. He talked to his friends on the subject of founding a similar institution, but few had the means of taking it up and paying attention to it; but at length, having interested a young friend of his, by the name of Bengough, he established a reformatory in a small brick building on his own lands, near his home at Hardwicke Court.

George Henry Bengough was in every respect a worthy coadjutor of a man like Baker. He was only twenty-four years old, and he

had in his own right an income of £10,000 a year; and yet for two years he resided in Mr. Baker's little reformatory, and acted as instructor of the young criminals there until, broken down by his labors, he went to Florence in Italy, and died.

It is not often that we find two young men of fortune, like Baker and Bengough, engaged in works like these.

The school at Hardwicke was commenced in 1852, the first inmates being three young London thieves brought into the country for treatment. For some time the work was carried on almost secretly, Mr. Baker and Mr. Bengough having misgivings as to their success. Mr. Bengough died; but Mr. Baker persevered, and after a while the results were such as to attract attention. And in 1854 even the *London Times* made note of it, and similar institutions were established; and now all England is covered with reformatories for young criminals, and other nations have followed her example.

Mr. Baker's work, however, was not confined to juvenile reformatories alone; but, *pari passu*, he carried along to success various other reformatory measures. The most important of these, perhaps, was the police supervision of criminals on ticket of leave, which has so largely reduced the volume of crime in England, and which is now beginning to receive acceptance in America.

Mr. Baker, however, was not solely a philanthropist, but was also prominent as a citizen in all the requirements of State or Church. Simply to enumerate the public duties in which he bore an honorable part cannot be attempted upon an occasion like this, for want of time; and to enter into details would require a volume. Suffice it to say that whatever he did was well done, and that whatever service he rendered was an unpaid service.

He received no title of nobility, although, if any man in England deserved such recognition, he did; and he seemed averse to any personal distinction. In my earlier correspondence with him, I addressed the envelopes of my letters to the Hon. T. B. Ll. Baker; but after a while, in one of his letters, in which he referred me to a friend of his for information as Rear-Admiral —, he said:—

"While we are thinking of addresses I am not 'Honorable,' nor have any title beyond 'Esquire.' Titles are not given in England to men who can afford to work without pay, except for political work. We, 'the great unpaid,' as they call us in joke, rather value this, showing that we look for reward neither in money nor worldly honors. And this is right. Those who have not sufficient means work honorably, partly for the work's sake and partly for pay; but those who it has pleased God should be born with means sufficient have the high privilege of working without *more* pay, and ought to be ashamed of themselves if they work the less for having their pay beforehand."

It was this spirit of consecration of himself and all that he had, as instruments in God's hand, to do his appointed work, that seems to me his noblest characteristic, and of which I have many manifestations in the continuous correspondence it was my privilege to have with

him for a period of nearly seven years. A few examples will indicate this more fully. Writing under date of Nov. 3, 1883, he says:—

"I have had a far happier life, I believe, than most men. Indeed, I almost tremble to think of the happiness I have enjoyed through life: money sufficient, not only for my wants and moderate pleasures, but for considerable hospitality, which gave me a position that helped me in my work; work enough to make me enjoy all my pleasures; family, friends, all that a man could wish. I was very *ambitious*, not of rank or fame, but of feeling that I was used by my God in some of his works. I have, as I believe, been so to a degree I never could have hoped for."

Again, in view of approaching dissolution, he says: "I do not object to death; but I consider my life as a trust, not to be relinquished by any act of carelessness of my own till it pleases the Giver to take it. So I am carried by my butler and footman up and down stairs, and sit in my study and write all day, and thank God for being able to do that."

Several months later, as increasing infirmities pressed upon him, he writes: "Of a truth, when it pleases God to carry out a good work, he does not need to use the strongest and best instruments. A reed in his hand is stronger than iron. Babies and sucklings can share in the work with giants, but it is an immense happiness to be allowed any share in such a work."

Still later on, he writes: "Few men have been so blessed as I in seeing my trees bear fruit. I have seen several plans (though scarcely one of them was adopted till I had worked seven or eight years to persuade people to try it) get, in the end, taken up, and spreading their branches widely. But to find, when I thought I was only a worn-out, useless cripple, that even yet there was a possibility of my being again used as a tool—no matter how poor a one—in God's hand was indeed a happiness."

And so in his last letter—which was sent to me, unsigned, a week before he died—this aroma of happiness in consecration pervaded it all; and late in his illness (as his son Granville writes me) he remembered with pleasure the influence of this Conference of Charities and Correction for the adoption of his methods of police supervision, and thanked God that he, "a poor, broken reed, should have been allowed to take part in a reform by which men in America were now at liberty and earning an independent livelihood instead of wasting their lives in prison." And thus he died in the spirit in which he lived, the noblest type of manhood, both as a Christian and as a philanthropist.

To me, personally, his friendship has been a benediction and an inspiration; and his loss is like the loss of a father. In my judgment, in these later generations no nobler type of manhood has been presented for imitation and inspiration than we find in the life and character of Thomas Barwick Lloyd Baker.

MR. WINES.—When I hear the name of Mr. Baker, I am reminded of the saying of Solomon: "Thine own friend, and thy father's friend, forget not." Mr. Baker was my friend, and, I think, the

dearest friend that my father ever had on this earth. I have never known a man who impressed me as possessing so many and such heroic excellences of character. He seemed to unite in himself the strength and courage of a man, the sensibility of a woman, and the simplicity of a child. A more modest man, and yet a bolder man, never lived. A more religious man I never came in contact with, but his piety was absolutely free from what we call cant. There was no ostentation about it, yet he had an absolutely unshaken Christian faith and a consecration that seemed to have no limit.

When my father went to his house for the first time, a gentleman in London said to him, "You are going down to Gloucester to visit Mr. Baker?" My father replied that he was. The gentleman then remarked, "That is the most delightful house in all England." He was visited at one time by Baron von Holzendorff, a professor in the University of Munich, officially connected with the management of the prisons of Bavaria, who was so impressed by Mr. Baker's character that he went home and wrote a book about him, which he circulated throughout Germany, saying that he wished very much that the type of English squire represented in Mr. Baker could be reproduced in Germany. But I suppose that it cannot be reproduced in any other country in the world.

I myself made a visit to Mr. Baker at his home in Gloucester, and spent two most delightful days with his family. I found him everything that a host should be, and I will relate some anecdotes which will illustrate his character. The dining-room was hung with portraits of his ancestors. He pointed to one and another, and explained to me who they were. One, I remember, was a physician (I think to George III.). He said that he attended the princess in a very severe illness, and that, after the child's recovery, the king proposed to make the doctor a baronet. But his grandfather declined the honor, on the ground that he had done nothing but his duty, that he had done nothing that he would not have done for a beggar in the street. Mr. Baker pointed to the picture, and said, "But for that reply, I would have been Sir Barwick Baker; but I would rather be able to tell that story of my grandfather than to be Sir Barwick Baker." We took a walk in the fields, and he showed me the little school-house on his farm where the first reformatory school in England was established. He told me the whole story, and a most interesting and delightful story it was. He was the father of the reform and industrial school system of England. It was in his house that the Social Science Association of England was organized. He was very much interested in the question of pauperism, and had a great deal to do with improved methods of dealing with paupers. He was the originator and advocate of the system of police supervision, as contrasted with imprisonment, for criminals of the minor class. In every good work he was foremost; and his loyalty to his country, to his church, to his friends, to his work, was something that cannot be put into words. He was, above all, a great friend of America, interested in every American topic, fond of Americans; and he had a great many

American correspondents. He felt a deep interest in this Conference and in the National Prison Association and in the work of prison reform, and in the general social development of this country, which very few Englishmen are capable of feeling. I remember his saying one day, while speaking of our country and the necessity of laying good foundations on which to build an honorable superstructure, "How old are you?" calling me by my first name, as he sometimes did. I told him. "Ah," said he, "you have twenty-five years of active work before you; and a man can do a great deal in twenty-five years. We have done a great deal in England in that time."

I feel that, as Americans, we cannot honor his memory too much. There is to be a memorial window erected to him in Gloucester cathedral, and there are to be contributions to that memorial from all countries of the world. I am glad to know that there is an effort making in this country to testify to our appreciation of him; and I hope that we shall make a liberal contribution, because we owe to him far more than most of us are aware.

DR. DANA.—I second the resolution offered by Mr. Letchworth, and would express my gratification that a memorial so grateful and graceful has been prepared. This is but another illustration of the fact that the fraternity of philanthropists is as wide as the civilized world; that one man starting out in his own country not only affects its institutions,—particularly the local institutions of his own community,—but sends abroad the inspiration of his noble life until he touches other hearts and affects those resident in distant lands. The name of Mr. Baker will stand side by side with that of Lord Shaftesbury and many other noted Englishmen who have devoted themselves to all that pertains to the weal of their own race at home and abroad. We here cannot do better than honor the names of such men, even if it were only by way of acknowledging what they have done for us as personal exemplars of all that is self-sacrificing and generous, and especially for that awakening of enthusiasm and heroism in the hearts of American philanthropists, who are to meet and grapple with these great questions of penology and practical reform. I heartily concur with the memorial offered, and move its adoption by this body.

MR. GARRETT.—While I think a body of philanthropists like this should be very far from being a mutual admiration society, for glorifying one another, because the grace of Christian humility is peculiarly appropriate to us, yet it seems to me that our record would be dignified by placing upon it the resolutions and testimonials to the character of such a remarkable man as Mr. Barwick Baker. I think we should be chary of extending too widely the list of those we thus place on our records; but, in this instance of such a shining example to us all of a beautiful Christian character, I would move that the resolutions which have been offered be not only placed upon our record, but printed at length in the published Proceedings.

The resolution was unanimously adopted.

MR. GARRETT.—I would also move that the resolutions relating to Miss Dix, which have been presented, should be so printed.

The resolution was unanimously adopted.

Miss Jessie Schley, superintendent of the St. Paul Home for Young Girls, was granted an opportunity to speak of her efforts in behalf of working girls.

Miss SCHLEY.—I am much obliged for this opportunity to speak of my working girls. I think that the preventive work is worth more than all the reformatory work. The city is full of girls that come from country towns, who are not content to be servant girls. They go into the city, and, on account of the small wages, are compelled to enter low boarding-houses; and gradually they swell the vortex of crime in our cities. I desire to speak to the citizens of Omaha upon this subject. Our home was started only a little over two years ago; and we always have fifty-five, and often sixty, of these young girls. We have two parlors, a reading-room, good library, and the daily papers, and assist them in finding employment. They have a laundry, and all for \$2.50 per week. Other homes through the country do a great deal of good, but they charge \$3.50 to \$4.00. There is very little charity in that. When a little girl leaves home, that is the time to shelter her; and, therefore, it is important not to charge over \$2.50, or even less if practicable. Then they feel independent. They are permitted to invite their friends, respectable young men, that have been properly introduced to them. They have parties, and are permitted to have cards, square dances, checkers, croquet, and innocent games on Wednesdays. The ladies can come to see them at any time. Religion is forbidden to be discussed in the house. We also have a literary society, in which no one is allowed to be a member who does not contribute something in the way of literature to the club. No one is allowed to become a member of our institution except girls under thirty years of age. Widows and unmarried women are not afforded the protection and comforts of this institution. The cost of the running expenses is more than paid by the two dollars and a half a week. About forty is a good number for such a home. They get into cliques, and form special friendships, and leave out others, if there are too many. Our girls leave us only to get married. Many are married with us, and we give them a wedding breakfast. They average about sixteen or seventeen years of age, so that they are childish and fond of play and dancing; and I allow any fun so long as it is right. We have a laundry, and it is a great saving to the girls to be allowed to do their own washing.

Dean HART stated that there was a similar home in Denver that has been doing good work. The price for board there is four dollars a week.

The special committee authorized to visit the Children's Hospital made a report, which was ordered appended to the report from Nebraska (page 61).

Adjourned at 12 M.

TENTH SESSION.

Tuesday afternoon, August 30.

The Conference met at 2 P.M., the President in the chair.

The Committee on Penal and Reformatory Institutions reported through its chairman, A. O. Wright, of Wisconsin.

In announcing the necessary absence of Warden J. W. McLaughry, of Illinois, who was to have spoken on "Registration of Professional Criminals," Mr. WRIGHT said:—

The tendency of legislation, and of the discussions of penologists, is to draw a line of demarcation between professional criminals and others, making the penalties more severe against professional criminals. To secure the evidence that they are professional, it is necessary to have a system of registration, because they change their appearance by disguises and their names by assuming fictitious ones. The Wardens' Association, at its meeting in Detroit last spring, adopted a system for registering professional criminals. Mr. McLaughry is the secretary of the Association; and he would have explained this system to the Conference, had he not been unavoidably prevented from attending.

A paper on "The Police System of Milwaukee" by Col. F. J. Ries, chief of police, was read by Dr. Hill (page 115).

DISCUSSION ON POLICE REFORM.

Mr. WRIGHT.—Mr. Sanborn stated the other evening in his report that the great cities were always troubled about the management of their charities, and that they make the most trouble to the State Boards. In Wisconsin, we are an exception to that rule.

Mr. SANBORN.—We understand that Wisconsin is an exception to all rules.

Mr. WRIGHT.—Milwaukee, with two hundred thousand people, has all its charitable and penal institutions arranged on a very good basis. None of them can be called poor. But I still think the system of out-door relief is about as bad as it can be made. Milwaukee has the largest proportion of foreign-born citizens of any city in the country. Half of the population is German, and more than one-fourth belong to other nationalities; and they control the politics of the city. The penal and charitable institutions are well administered, not because they are in the hands of foreigners, nor because they are in Wisconsin, nor because the State Board has had much to do with them. But the principal reason is that there has been for many years a ladies' board of local visitors, which has been very efficient in its work in city and county, of which Mrs. Fairbanks and Mrs. Lynde are active members. That board has secured many

reforms in the management of institutions. The chief cause of the change in the management of the police system has been the general agitation of civil service reform and the feeling of some of the leading citizens, German and American. The police force is now organized under a genuine system of civil service reform. Every policeman is appointed by a pass examination, and he may be promoted by competitive examination. There is absolutely no politics in it. Two or three other cities have entered on this work. We can never have a genuine supervision of criminals, such as is necessary to a ticket-of-leave system, until the police systems are organized in something this manner, and are kept clear of partisan politics. The Milwaukee system of police organization had, during the socialistic riots, a little over a year ago, such a test as few cities have had to contend with. You all heard of the firing on the Polish mob at Bay View, in which Polish militia took part? The police were not called on, because it was at that time outside the city limits; but another mob, a German socialistic one, was organized within the city, and the German policemen suppressed it, and they did it without firing a shot. This was the result of the excellent organization of the police, the use of the patrol wagons, and the telegraph system. Within five or ten minutes, two-thirds of the police force could be thrown into any part of the city. Napoleon's system was to throw the largest numbers possible on one given point at one particular instant. Milwaukee was able to follow this plan in dealing with rioters by the excellent organization of her police.

A DELEGATE from Minnesota, in moving the adoption of the report, said: I protest against the manner of conducting this convention. I am a new member, and perhaps it is officious in me to say a word. But these gentlemen go to work and select one of their own number to prepare a paper. That is prepared within six or nine months, when we from all over the country come in here, and hear these reports read; and I venture the assertion that hardly one-half of the persons here know one-half of those reports. It seems to me that these reports should be prepared, and should be printed and put into the hands of the committee; and, when they are brought to the convention, a copy of each report should be placed in the hands of every member of the convention, and thus save the time that is consumed in reading them. The time should then be spent in discussing the matters contained in the report. I know there are a number of delegates here and others representing societies that would be pleased to say a word. If you want to make this a success and have everybody interested, give an opportunity to be heard.

Mr. SANBORN.—Will the gentleman put his remarks in the form of a resolution?

Mr. LETCHWORTH.—I think these remarks are very pertinent. We have been trying for a good many years to accomplish this very thing and to have the papers printed in advance. If that were done, it would save much time. I think if the gentleman would put his remarks in the form of a motion, they would be complied with as far as possible.

President GILES.—I am glad that the delegate from Minnesota has made this suggestion. I have tried faithfully to have these reports printed before they were brought here. I wish the gentleman would put his remarks in the form of a motion; but, in any case, they will have a good effect.

The report was then unanimously adopted.

Dr. ANCKER, of Minnesota, moved that there be a standing committee on hospitals. It was voted to refer this resolution to the proper committee, with instructions to report such a committee.

Mr. JOHNSON suggested that in the next Conference there should be more time given for discussion and for the asking and answering of pithy questions.

Mrs. DINSMORE thought that the reason so few persons took part in the discussions was that most of the delegates were learners, and preferred to listen to the acknowledged leaders on these various topics.

DELEGATE from Minnesota.—I do not desire to limit or restrict any one. My suggestion was simply that the reports should be printed in advance.

Hon. J. J. Wheeler of Michigan was asked to speak on the Indeterminate Sentence.

J. J. WHEELER.—I do not propose to discuss the question of indeterminate sentence, but to make a few practical suggestions that, perhaps, will enable those who do not understand it to comprehend what it means, and to ascertain its relative importance in the matter of prison reform. Indeterminate sentence strictly means that, when a prisoner is convicted of crime, he shall be sent to prison to remain until the authorities see fit to discharge him or he dies. But, as you are aware, for centuries the custom has been to treat different crimes as of different degrees, and to affix a special penalty to each particular offence, affixing a minimum and a maximum term. If a prisoner is convicted of robbing, having a deadly weapon and threatening to use it, he may be sent to the State prison for not less than one and not more than fifteen years. As we propose to use it in our State, and as it is used mostly in the United States, the indeterminate sentence means that that party, instead of being sent for one up to fifteen years by the court or jury, shall be simply sent to prison, there to remain at least the minimum time fixed by law, and shall be discharged at the maximum time fixed for that offence; but, in the interval, he may be released by some man or board appointed for that purpose. That is what I understand by the indeterminate sentence. We had such a law before our legislature, but the governor refused to sign it, on the ground that it would put into the

hands of the warden of the prison the power of determining when a man should go out; and, if he got a good workman in there, the interests of the prison would work toward keeping him there just as long as they could. The city of Detroit has a workhouse, and the whole regulation and ownership of it are in the city government. It is the only woman's prison we have in Michigan. All women convicted of crime have to be sent there. By contract with different counties in the State, minor offenders, such as are not sent to the State prison, may be sent there. According to their last report, there were sent to that institution last year 2,206 persons, of whom 1,763 were men and 427 women. Of these, 1,578 are persons within the disorderly act, 159 sent by the federal courts,—97 for one year, 82 for two years, 273 for three years, and 2,027 for less than one year. Of these, more than three-fourths were sent for less than thirty days; 864 were recommitted from one to thirteen times; 17 were committed twenty-nine times, and 11 were recommitted thirty times; 9 were recommitted forty times, and 2 fifty-seven times.

As the superintendent well says, these you might fairly call incorrigibles. Such imprisonment serves only to let them stay long enough to recover in part from the effect of their offence. Some of them come back again within fifteen or twenty days after being discharged. This includes both men and women. If these persons could be kept in prison, away from temptation and evil influence, until completely restored physically, taught habits of industry, and their moral characters built up, very many would be reformed. When it is almost certain that, if let out, they will return to vicious habits, and be worse than ever, is it wrong to keep them where they must be sober, virtuous, and industrious? Is it not for the true interest of society to keep them confined until they can be benefited? As long as they are at liberty, they will not work. Imprisonment at times is one of the chances they take. They know their terms will be short; and the worst criminals, as a rule, make the most good time.

In my view, if this indeterminate sentence could be put in the place of the short term, it would be of decided benefit. My observation and information from wardens are that those men who get the benefit of good time by obeying the rules of the prison and doing their work well are the men who do not expect to reform and never will reform: they only want to get out as quickly as they can. Prison officials all know that these incorrigibles will commit crime again as soon as out. They would rather be in prison than earn an honest living. Should not the law keep such men shut up until they will not steal? What right to liberty has the thief? He has no right to liberty. Letting him out is a wrong. Government is organized for the protection of society. In this lies its only excuse for existence, and that underlies the whole matter. Take a man that you know is a criminal just as well as you know anything: you know that he will rob and prey upon society; and I say that the first principle of justice demands that that man shall be kept shut up until he is in a condition, morally and physically, to support himself by honest work. No human being has the

infinite knowledge necessary to get at the facts and circumstances in these different crimes, to enable him to pass a sentence of punishment upon a man proportionate to that offence. Courts have no time or means to weigh the evidence, and, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, are unable to fix a penalty. The law goes on the theory that they affix a penalty as a matter of punishment. But there is not one case in a thousand where the court possesses the necessary knowledge of the man and his crime to enable it to fix any penalty proportionate to that crime. After the man is in prison, his character, his associates, his aims, can be understood with some accuracy. In the work of strengthening his character and building it up, those in charge can watch and encourage him. As soon as it is safe, he can be let out on trial. If it is found that he will surely commit crime if he is let out, he should be kept shut up. Our warden told me of a man in prison who was going out in one week. It was understood by the warden that that man had a plan made with his associates outside to commit a crime as soon as he should be free; yet, when his sentence expired, he must be and was let out. I ask, What right had that man, with the certainty that he was going to commit a crime, to go out? So long as the law has for its fundamental doctrine that no one has a right to injure the person or property of another, so long as society is protected by the enforcement of this principle, so long it must be right and proper to shut up, and keep shut up, those who will plunder and rob.

On motion of ALBERT S. WHITE, of Ohio, it was

Voted, That the Committee on the Apportionment of Time to the different committees be and are hereby requested to allot at least two sessions to the subject of Children's Homes and Child-saving Work.

Col. CHASE.—Has the system of indeterminate sentence ever been tried, and with what results?

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.—It has been carried out for a number of years at the Reformatory at Elmira, in the State of New York. They have on an average about six hundred prisoners there. The absolute indeterminate sentence has never been attempted anywhere. As we understand the indeterminate sentence, it is really an indefinite sentence. As we have adopted it in Elmira and Ohio, it is this: a person convicted of his first offence, under thirty years of age, may be sent to the Reformatory, but not for any definite period of time. We will suppose that he was convicted of burglary in New York. He might be sent to the penitentiary for thirty years or his term be limited to one. Instead of fixing the limit, he is simply sentenced to the Elmira Reformatory for burglary. He may be held for thirty years or discharged in one. The prisoner goes to the Reformatory, where there are three grades,—first, second, and third. Every prisoner goes into the second grade on his arrival, and from there he may go up or down. His fate is in his own hands. A book is furnished him with his record every month. If he thinks anything is wrong in it, he may

appeal to the superintendent. If they do not agree, the superintendent will call a jury of first-grade prisoners. When he gets a certain number of marks, he may be transferred to the first grade. In the first grade, he has many privileges which he does not have in the second. After a period of good conduct in that grade, he may be released on ticket of leave. But suppose he goes the other way, and by bad conduct drops into the third grade. Then he has a hard time of it. He has his head shaved, and wears a different garb. He has his meals alone and different diet. Yet he does not lose hope. He may start back again, and in six months' time may earn his way up into the second grade. In the last report of the National Prison Association can be found the most exhaustive report ever made upon this subject, in a paper prepared by Rev. Fred. H. Wines. The prisoner does not go out until he is tested, and until employment is provided for him. There are more places to-day waiting for the released prisoners from Elmira than there are released prisoners to fill them. A graduate of the Elmira Reformatory is a man to be trusted, and employers know that. As to results, Mr. Brockway, up to this date, says that eighty-two per cent. of the discharged prisoners from Elmira are leading honest lives; but, if only fifty per cent. are permanently cured, it is a great gain. The indefinite sentence is already in operation in our reform schools; and, in our new prison in Ohio, we shall have this system, and keep the old prison for the professional and incorrigible criminals. The thing to do is to hold a bad man, when you have got him; and if he is a crook, who is devoting his life to burglary and crime, why, in the name of common sense, should you not keep him all his life? Why should you ever discharge such a man? A large amount of crime comes from that class of men. They are the organizers and captains of crime; and they generally make criminals of younger men, while they escape themselves. The law of Ohio provides that, when a man is convicted for the third time, he goes to prison for life. After criminals have been twice imprisoned, they will give Ohio a wide berth. We think that by the indefinite sentence, and by properly disciplining the prisoners, we could save a great many young men; and I believe we can.

Mr. STORRS.—What Ohio has done will force other States, in self-protection, to do the same.

Dr. DANA.—Has the cumulative sentence been tried in police courts?

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.—I do not know that it has been in this country, but it ought to be done. Our treatment of minor offences is of no use now.

Mr. HUNTING, of Iowa.—I think the indeterminate sentence is the one thing to be secured before we can have prison reform. I can testify from my visits to Elmira of the good which is coming out of that system. The law is that a man coming there for the first offence, if he is constitutionally a criminal, may stay the maximum time. This indefinite sentence is the most important thing to bring before judges and legislatures. We had a bill in Iowa to introduce

this, and we got two judges to agree to it; but we could not find a single legislator ready to commit himself to the principle. It is difficult also to make the wardens accept this system.

Mr. TATE, of Nebraska.—As an abstract principle, the indeterminate sentence is a grand thing; but, indiscriminately applied, it would do harm. You have been to Lincoln. What have you seen? Men who every hour detained there in prison are in a hot-bed of vice, produced from the fact that they must not speak during all their working hours, they must not lift their eyes to look upon visitors; and, besides that, they know that, when they start in the morning to work, they go as the hired help of another, who is making a financial profit out of their hard earnings. When they leave the State penitentiary, they leave with the seeds of vice and crime developed. I went with my wife to visit the prison during the last legislature. I noticed, as I moved up and down the corridors and in the workshops, the ladies would say, "What a vicious face that man has got!" My wife pointed to one man, and said, "What a vicious face that fellow has got!" Afterwards I made inquiry, and found that the man was not bad or vicious; but he had that look, which was fixed upon him by the stripes of the clothes that he wore and the shaved hair. Every part of our prison discipline only tends to rob a prisoner of his manhood and fill him with vice.

Mr. WHEELER, chaplain of the penitentiary at Lincoln.—The State prison of Nebraska is not a place where men are abused. I happen to know that, as I am connected with the institution. I don't want our men abused, and I would not have them abused. Public sentiment in this State must be changed. A man who goes out of a penitentiary goes out with a ban that he is an ex-prisoner. He is met with a cold look; and he plunges into crime again because public sentiment is wrong, and not the officials of the penitentiary. Let us have representatives who will make proper laws, and then let the laws be enforced outside and inside of the penitentiary. If prisoners were allowed to talk, there would be a mutiny in a short time. We all know that. The officers would also rather have solid color for clothes than striped clothes.

Mr. TATE.—I do not wish to imply that the state of things in Nebraska is worse than in other States.

Mrs. COLBY, of Nebraska.—I have been listening for my friends to mention a bill introduced last winter, providing that the governor might at his pleasure, every Fourth of July, pardon one prisoner put in for life. It was argued that nothing more hopeless could be conceived than to be a life-long prisoner, and that, if this hope should be held out to these thirty or forty life prisoners, it might be a stimulus to a good life to these wretched men.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.—In Ohio, after a prisoner sentenced as an incorrigible has served the maximum of the indefinite sentence, he may, by good conduct, get out on ticket of leave.

Mr. ROSENAU.—I do not pretend to be an expert on matters of prison reform; but I happen to be a member of the legal profession,

and I want to take exception to the sentimental ideas that have been expressed. We have laws for the protection of society. We have got to use striped clothes and shaved heads and every discipline necessary. I have seen reformed prisoners, men who do not go back to prison; but what do they do? They keep saloons, and educate the young in vice. They aid and abet a criminal act whenever they get a chance. I have great respect for the gentlemen who try to reform prisoners, those who have committed but one offence. But, when one has been convicted two or three times, there are few cases where any reform can be expected. It has been suggested that wardens and legislators must be reformed. But, if you will reform the people, they will elect a legislature that will reform the wardens. The voter is at the bottom of it all.

Mrs. COLBY.—I am glad of the suggestion that Mr. Rosenau has made. I have been wondering why there has been nothing said about drying up the sources of crime. I hope, when you meet next, you will have some suggestion to make as to this most important matter, and that the Conference will wake up to what the saloon is doing as a source of crime.

Dr. VIVIAN.—It seems to me absurd to allow a judge to sentence a prisoner whom we look upon as morally insane to a prison for one year, two or even thirty years, to cure his moral error. We might as well sentence a man mentally insane to an insane asylum for three months or thirty years for cure. The taint of this moral insanity cannot be got out in any definite length of time, and the man who proves himself incorrigible should be treated like your chronic insane, put where he can do society no harm as long as he lives. The man who commits a murder under the influence of passion, or some other strong emotion, is not half so dangerous to society as the burglar who carries murder in his heart all the time, when he goes to commit his depredations; and to discharge such a man after having served two or ten or twenty years seems to me the acme of absurdity.

Mr. SAMPSON, of Colorado.—By a law passed in our last legislature, life prisoners who have been in confinement twenty-five years are discharged. We have no sentimentalism about criminals; yet punishment alone does not reform, and does not prevent crime. We are disposed to feel that there is a possibility of reforming all prisoners, and a man brought under the influence of the gospel can be reformed. I should always want to hold out a hope for him.

Mr. JOHNSON.—I want to mention an improvement in the police system of Chicago. We have recently had a law passed by which the police can act out of town, at the stock-yards, for instance, or in any place where they may be needed outside the city limits. I also wish to call attention to the fact that Massachusetts makes the third sentence twenty-five years. It has been said that the Ohio law would drive the criminals out of Ohio. If all the professional criminals leave Massachusetts and Ohio, to spread over the country, what a flood there will be!

Dr. VIVIAN.—Illinois possesses such a law, but it has never been

made operative. The prior conviction is never proved against a prisoner, I think. But the police know that there are hundreds in Chicago who ought to have gone to Joliet for life.

Mr. WRIGHT.—All these cumulative sentence laws rest on the principle that previous convictions must be proved in court at the time of conviction. But, under an indeterminate sentence, the facts can be gathered by correspondence with other prisons. Then the professional criminals, having been caught, can be held by the prison board. That is an important reason for the indefinite sentence for all criminals.

A DELEGATE from Ohio.—We are making great progress in Ohio in the direction of child-saving work. We are about to erect a House of Detention, so that boys and girls arrested for first offences can be kept separate, and not sent to the police station, as they formerly were.

At 4 P.M., the regular session was adjourned, in order to give opportunity for a conversational meeting upon the principles and methods of organized or associated charity, which was held at the request of many residents of Omaha interested in having a Charity Organization Society formed in that city. Mr. Kellogg occupied the chair, and, in connection with Messrs. Johnson of Chicago, Rosenau of Buffalo, and Warner of Baltimore, answered the several questions put by the meeting.

ELEVENTH SESSION.

Tuesday night, August 30.

The Conference met at 7.30 P.M., the President in the chair. A telegram was read from W. T. Lewis, of Wisconsin, saying that his paper "On the Prison Contract System, from a Manufacturer's Standpoint" had been sent to the Conference. As it failed to arrive till the close of the session, it was only read by title (page 113).

Mr. Garrett reported for the Executive Committee that Hon. W. P. Letchworth had been appointed chairman for the coming year, and F. B. Sanborn, treasurer: that the Committee had voted to issue an edition of twenty-five hundred copies of the Proceedings of the Fourteenth Conference.

The Committee on Permanent Organization submitted their report, with names of officers and committees for the coming year.

The report of the Committee was adopted (see page ix).

The Committee on Charity Organization reported through its chairman, C. D. Kellogg, of New York (page 123).

Mr. KELLOGG.—Buffalo, where we hope to meet in 1888, claims the honor of establishing the first Charity Organization Society, pure and

simple, in the United States. Four or five years, however, before the creation of that society, the first experiment made in this land, in many of the leading features of organized charity, was undertaken in Germantown, a suburban borough of Philadelphia, which borough, when incorporated into the present city of Philadelphia, still retained its old borough department of public poor relief, independent of any control by the city government. This experiment was successfully made by the chief local benevolent society of Germantown, which society now forms one of the ward or district associations of the Philadelphia Charity Organization Society. The participators in that experiment may well be called the pioneers of the Charity Organization movement in this country; and it gives me great pleasure to call upon, as it will you to listen to, one of those pioneers, who will speak to the report just made, Mr. Philip C. Garrett, of Philadelphia.

Mr. GARRETT.—It is true that I was one of the officers of the first charity organization society in this country; but it was also true that that was called the Germantown Relief Society, and that it was formed exactly in the way which has been condemned by the committee as being in no sense a charity organization society. The Germantown society took its origin at the time of the panic of 1873, when widespread distress led a number of the wards of Philadelphia to organize for the purpose of relief. It happened that Charles G. Ames and Mrs. Ames were residing in Germantown at that time. They were very intelligently informed as to the movement in London which had been begun previously, and as to the methods of relief since known by the name of Organized Charity; and, as these commended themselves to the managers of the new society, it was organized on that basis. I cannot say that I sympathize entirely with the views of the committee in insisting upon an iron-clad form of society. It seems to me that, known by whatever name and with considerable latitude as to methods, those societies which organize charity, and which adhere to a few simple rules laid down as important, ought to be recognized, and that it would be desirable to welcome into the fold of organized charity all such societies as make an honest effort to do away the evils which prevail. I think that this society in Germantown which was the pioneer, however small, of this work, was as pure a representative as any that exist at the present time. It started on the principle that no case was to be relieved without thorough investigation, excepting in case of extreme suffering. That, I think, is the fundamental principle. In such case there might be temporary relief until investigation could be had. They also laid down the rule that no help should be given in money; that relief, and not support, was to be given,—relief of distress and personal assistance, to enable the family to secure maintenance by its own efforts. They adopted the system which is now known as “friendly visiting,” which originated, I think, in London. This is one of those technical phrases, like “charity organization” and “conference,” which I feel a little objection to, unless explained, because they are so apt to be misunderstood. The essential feature was that, in this investigation

and in the subsequent care of the family who were being relieved, a corps of visitors — almost always ladies, unpaid, volunteer visitors — should perform the offices of personal friends to the families in suffering, and that their efforts should be to elevate these families from a condition of dependence on the public to one of self-dependence.

It was found in the course of the experience of that society, as everywhere else, that there were families who had for generations been dependent on the community, and were living in almshouses or receiving out-door relief, and who did not expect to do anything else. They took it as a great offence when they were told that we could give them no relief. Registration was conducted with success in Germantown, and was extended through our city with the system of charity organization. Although opposed by one of the ablest originators of the society, it seems to me one of the best features, as it enables societies, individuals, and churches to go to the books and obtain the whole record of families asking for help. These are the characteristic features of charity organization societies. It also seems to me that anything which really organizes is a great improvement on the old condition, when everything was haphazard, and every one gave relief without knowing who else was giving, so that one person would receive from a dozen sources, while others were receiving nothing. Anything which will systematize charity ought to receive recognition and help. The statistics given by the committee interested me very much. I had no conception that there were so many societies in existence. It is interesting to see the marvellous growth of organized charity since the formation of the first society; and yet we should not forget that these statistics are more valuable to the societies themselves, in order that they may see whether they are retrograding or progressing, than to a Conference of this kind. They form a basis of comparison. If we obtain the average statistics of the whole country, they will furnish to each society evidence whether it is above or below the standard; and in that respect they are useful to the whole community. I observed in the table that there was no question asked as to the expenditure of each society. This would be useful, because it would indicate to some extent the amount the society expends, not for relief, but for organization, salaries, etc.; and it would be advantageous to have that brought out. I would be glad if the committee could send out an urgent appeal to every society, and beg them to conform all their statistics to the table which this Conference has prepared, so that hereafter we may have a perfect return from every society.

Mr. DOOLEY moved that the papers prepared by the committee be read by title, and ordered printed, and the time be devoted to discussion. The motion was laid on the table.

Mr. KELLOGG.—The papers which the committee has the honor to present this evening are all from the pens of women well versed in both the theory and practice of organized and scientific charity. It

is a matter of great regret to the committee that the distance from the homes of these ladies at which this Conference is held has made it impossible for any of them to be present, and read their own papers and inspire us by their presence. The first paper which we have the pleasure to submit has been prepared by Mrs. Charles R. Lowell, the chief spirit in the inception of the Charity Organization Society of the city of New York, who has a national reputation as a member of the New York State Board of Charities, and who has been a frequent participator in these National Conferences.

This paper was read by Mr. Wines (page 135).

MR. KELLOGG.—We have heard from one of the pioneers of the Charity Organization movement in this country. We are also highly favored in having present with us this evening one of the originators of the Charity Organization Society of the city of London,—the parent Charity Organization Society of the world, now just about twenty years old. The gentleman in question showed how deeply imbued he is with the spirit of a pioneer by the fact that, upon his arrival in this land a decade since, he pushed immediately for the far “out West,”—even beyond this young giant city of the plains,—so that he has travelled many hundred miles to the eastward to attend this Conference. I have much pleasure in calling upon the very Rev. Dean Henry M. Hart, formerly of London, and now a citizen of Denver, Col.

DEAN HART.—I think five minutes is enough to tell you how to start a charity organization society; and, in doing so, I cannot do better than to briefly describe how we began the “Black Heath Mendicity Society,” six miles out of London. This neighborhood swarmed with beggars. We cast about to see how we could get rid of them. You have heard that it is the few who are ever willing to take trouble. It may, perhaps, be the few in Omaha; but, if you will take that trouble, you will preserve yourselves from the inroad of pauperism. This is what we did in Black Heath. I printed a sheet of perforated tickets, which were simply notes of introduction to our officer. These were sent to every house all over Black Heath. Then we posted placards everywhere: “Give no money to beggars, but mendicity tickets.” All the gentlemen going to London took these small bits of paper in their waistcoat pockets, and every beggar was presented with a valueless bit of paper. He read it, or some one read it to him; and it directed him to our officer. This officer was supplied with slips printed with spaces for names and places where the beggar said he resided. The slip was filled in by the officer and given to the applicant, to be carried to the relief-giving officer of his district. At the end of a week, we found ninety-five per cent. of those slips had never been taken to their destination. The other five were visited, and three of them found to be impostors. The two who needed help were thoroughly relieved. When the beggars found that they could get nothing but mendicity tickets, they decamped from the neighborhood, and in three weeks there was not a beggar in

Black Heath. But they were somewhere else, and the other places had to commence a similar system. In time, the professional beggars were nearly obliterated. Out of this Black Heath Mendicity Society grew the Charity Organization Society. You have been told that a charity organization society is not a relief society. It is an information bureau. You get all the societies that are at present existing, especially the societies which centre about churches, to send delegates to the Central Council; and in that council all the information which concerns the people who are seeking relief is presented. These people have before them then the best sources of information, and what is necessary to help the poor. All at once, the possibility of overlapping is prevented; and that great source of pauperization, indiscriminate charity, is obviated. No one can say how useful such information is to relief officers. It casts a flood of light on their most difficult paths. If you write to any of the societies which are already organized, they will supply you with directions and plans as plain as a, b, c; and you have only to follow them, and you will head off all that poverty which is a cross of great cities. That is the whole story. Induce delegates to attend the council from every church; and, above all things, take care that the clergymen are interested, and then your charity organization society is ready for work. Disseminate these perforated tickets everywhere. Give them, do not sell them; and you may be certain that all who want help will be forced to the right channel. If you can only get all of these persons who are seeking relief into one channel, you will know what you are doing. But, as long as indiscriminate charity is continued, it is the bane as well as the nutriment of pauperism. The Charity Organization Society of Omaha has, we hope, its birth to-day; and it will grow to be a stalwart power for the stemming of pauperism in this rapidly developing city.

Mr. KELLOGG.—The next paper is written by Mrs. John H. Scribner, of Staten Island, N.Y., an active member of the Charity Organization Society of Castleton, Staten Island, and one practically conversant with the work of which she writes; namely, "Savings as a Part of Charity Organization Methods." It will be read by Mr. Amos G. Warner, a son of Nebraska, but now secretary of the Charity Organization Society of Baltimore (page 143).

Mr. KELLOGG.—Mrs. S. W. Colby, of Beatrice, Neb., has kindly consented to speak upon Mrs. Scribner's paper; and she will need no introduction to a Nebraska audience.

Mrs. CLARA BEWICK COLBY.—The suggestions in this paper indicate what is to be the solution of the problem of how to establish a better relation between the different grades of society. Whatever will conduce to this will be of value to all; and this Savings Committee will make it easy for any person to visit the homes of the poor. There is no pride so proud as the pride of this class whom it is desired to reach. No persons so shrink from being helped or making their wants known. This system introduces the visitor from a business point of view, and thus gives him a vantage-ground. The bene-

fit of this is manifold. You all remember the sententious words of Micawber: "Annual income, twenty pounds; annual expenditure, nineteen pounds six: result, happiness. Annual income, twenty pounds; annual expenditure, twenty pounds six: result, misery." So the system that will assist families in making the expenditure less than the income will bring happiness to many homes. It is an unmeasured blessing to a family to learn how to keep out of debt, to save up for the expenses that must be met. There is nothing so potent in building up a man's self-respect as being able to say that he owes no man anything. Another way in which this work of saving will tend to the advantage of the classes seeking to be helped is that it will foster a spirit of independence, since, instead of receiving money, they give it. To take from the poor instead of giving to them, surely that is a novel way of doing good; but it is the surest way. We are too anxious, as a nation, to get something for which we have not paid. Mr. Wong Chin Foo, the Chinese gentleman who had an article in the last *North American Review*, tells us that he prefers to remain a heathen; and he invites us to "come to Confucius," that we may learn to be good. He says we are dishonest as a nation; and is there not a grain of truth in this, when we find so generally prevailing that dishonesty which seeks to gain something for which no equivalent has been given? We find it everywhere, in the church raffle and in the person who buys a dollar's worth of goods, that she may perhaps draw a silver water set. We find it in the poor, who are willing to receive bounty without any return, and who thus become chronic paupers. If we can help people in this direction of fostering integrity and independence, we are doing fundamental good in building up character.

This work will do the visitor good. It has the quality of mercy: it blesses him that gives and him that takes; and, in this work of friendly visiting, I am convinced that no one will receive more good than the visitor himself or herself. What can be more un-American, more dangerous to our existence as a nation, than to build up class distinctions? Whatever will tend to break them down or prevent them forming should be welcomed. And the very mingling in this friendly, brotherly way of the different classes will be a benefit. I was very much interested this morning in the memorial given of Mr. Baker. He was spoken of as belonging to the class who believe that *noblesse oblige*. He was quoted as having said we should be ashamed of ourselves for working less earnestly because we have had our pay beforehand. Speaking of the classes who had wealth in their possession, he said that they were stewards for the weal of the race. It was said that no other country than England could reproduce such a class, but there is a corresponding class in this country. I mean the women in the favored homes of America, where everything is done for them, where they have wealth and honor and position; and, alas! too many fail to realize that they are their sisters' and their brothers' keeper. And so to give to them something that will bring them into contact with other classes in society, and that will excite their sympathy, will give them a culture better than schools can offer. I look forward to

the time when women, having lost the frivolity and indifference which still remain as relics of their former subject condition, shall feel their responsibility for the weal of humanity. As a precursor of that time, I hail the establishment of this friendly visiting, which shall bring strength and earnestness to our favored womanhood.

Mr. KELLOGG.—Our third paper is from the pen of Mrs. James J. Putnam, of Boston, an experienced member of the Associated Charities of that city, and is upon "The Theory and Value of Friendly Visiting"; and I am glad to be permitted to call upon Mrs. Ada C. Bittenbender, of Lincoln, Neb., to read it (page 149).

Mr. KELLOGG.—Mrs. Putnam's paper will be re-enforced by a short address from the secretary of the oldest Charity Organization Society in the United States, Mr. N. S. Rosenau, of Buffalo.

Mr. ROSENAU.—In view of the completeness with which this paper covers the ground and in view of the lateness of the hour, I shall take refuge in the time-honored adage, "Silence is golden."

Col. CHASE said that he wished to add with reference to that paper that he considered that no better paper had been read before the Conference.

Mr. KELLOGG.—Our last paper has been prepared by Miss Z. D. Smith, general secretary of the Boston Associated Charities, well known to the habitual attendants upon these Conferences as one of the most intelligent and efficient charity organizationists of the country. It will be read by Mrs. Barrows, also of Boston, the official reporter of this body (page 156).

Mr. KELLOGG.—I will call upon Mr. William Alexander Johnson, secretary of the Charity Organization Society of Chicago, to speak upon Miss Smith's paper from the stand-point of his own experience.

Mr. JOHNSON.—I want to emphasize two points in Miss Smith's paper,—that machinery is not charity organization, and that those who are at work can best get others to work. One strong point in the success of the St. Vincent de Paul Society is that each worker must come into personal contact with one poor person. Miss Smith makes that quite as strong: that every officer of the society, from the president down, ought to engage in friendly visiting.

Mr. SHURTLEFF, of Boston.—In behalf of the Business Committee, I desire to offer the following resolutions:—

Resolved, That the thanks of the Fourteenth National Conference of Charities and Correction are heartily extended to his Excellency John M. Thayer, governor of the State of Nebraska, to his Honor W. J. Broatch, mayor of the city of Omaha, to the Hon. Edward Rosewater, the Hon. John M. Thurston, and the Hon. Alvin Saunders, representing the Board of Trade, and the citizens of Omaha, for their warm welcome and cordially tendered hospitality;

To the Local Committee, and especially to Prof. John A. Gillespie and Mrs. O. C. Dinsmore, to whose arduous and efficient labors the success of this session of the Conference is so largely due;

To the gentlemen of the Glee Club and of Mr. Meyer's orchestra for their delightful music on the opening evening, and to the choirs of the Congregational and Episcopal churches for the appropriate music furnished at the Sunday services;

To the citizens of this prosperous and progressive city of Omaha for their generous hospitality;

To the daily press of Omaha for its full and accurate reports and appreciative comments;

And to the railroad companies for facilities afforded.

Our thanks are also tendered to his Honor A. J. Sawyer, mayor, and to the citizens of the city of Lincoln, for their very warm-hearted reception on Saturday.

We remember with special pleasure the drive around their beautiful city, the visit to the State institutions located there, and the bountiful and handsomely served collation provided by the ladies.

We are also indebted to the trustees of the Methodist Episcopal church of Lincoln for the use of their church edifice.

Mr. WINES, in seconding the resolutions offered by Capt. Shurtleff in behalf of the Business Committee, said: We have had a very interesting and successful meeting. The attendance, it is true, has been larger at previous Conferences; but for this there have been very good reasons. The Medical Association meets in Washington next week; and the superintendents of insane hospitals are generally expected to attend that meeting, and this accounts for their absence. The National Prison Association meets the following week in Toronto, and the wardens of prisons will be there. So, of course, they could not come here. Some of our number are in Europe, some are detained at home by sickness; and, though Omaha is the centre of the country, it is a long way from Boston and New York. It has therefore been difficult for representatives from the Eastern States to attend, but we have had a fair delegation from the Atlantic coast. We have had a most generous reception, and the warmest hospitality has been shown us as a Conference and individually; and we have formed friendships here which will last through life. We shall never forget the city of Omaha, nor its public-spirited and noble community.

And now, ladies and gentlemen, we trust, as we are about to separate and leave you, that this meeting will not be without fruit, but that we shall hear in future years of actual, practical results following the stimulation of thought which the presence of so many public-spirited men and women and the discussion of such important subjects must have provoked in your minds. It is not what we have said, but it is what you yourselves think and do about it, from which we hope for great results. Having such a magnificent city, with such great and brilliant prospects, it would be a pity if the earnest-minded men and women of Omaha and of the State of Nebraska should fail to realize the responsibility which rests upon them to the unfortunate and to the criminal, or to meet the full measure of this responsibility. By early and wise action, you can prevent the growth of many of the evils with which older communities are afflicted. That is your privi-

lege, and certainly it is your duty. We believe that you will undertake the task before you, and that you will succeed in it.

The resolutions were unanimously passed by a rising vote, as were also the following resolutions offered by Mr. W. Alexander Johnson:

Resolved, That the hearty thanks of the delegates to the Fourteenth National Conference of Charities and Correction are due, and are hereby tendered, to the Hon. H. H. Giles for his self-denying, arduous, and patriotic services during the past year in preparing for the Conference, and his dignified, impartial, and kindly chairmanship over its deliberations. In bidding him farewell as our President, we trust that he will long be spared to continue his successful labors in behalf of the Charities and Corrections of the noble State of Wisconsin, and that his well-known and honored face and figure may for many years to come be with us at our annual Conferences. With him we would wish to associate in our thanks his colleagues in the Executive Committee, who have so heartily aided him both before and during the Conference. To the secretaries of the Conference, especially our trusty, whole-souled, and well-beloved Hart, we would pay our meed of thanks; to the chairman of committees for their instructive and interesting reports; to the ladies and gentlemen who have presented papers; to the pages who have so promptly and courteously responded to the calls of members; to the boy who made and presented the gavel; and last, but by no means least, to our official reporter, Mrs. Isabel C. Barrows, to whose accuracy in reporting and perfect taste and judgment in editing we owe a yearly volume of Proceedings which is a pride to every member of the Conference, we would extend our gratitude for services such as a mere money payment could not command.

Mr. GILES.—From the bottom of my heart, I thank you. I made a promise at St. Paul. I have done my best to fulfil it. I have done what I could. The result is before you. I now discharge my last official duty by introducing a gentleman who has spent his life in working for humanity; a gentleman who has attended—and this can be said of no other member of the Conference—every session for the last fourteen years, Dr. C. S. Hoyt, of New York.

Dr. HOYT thanked the Conference for the honor conferred upon him, and pledged his best endeavors to make the next Conference a success.

Mr. GILLESPIE, chairman of the Local Committee, again thanked the Conference for coming to Omaha, and expressed the hope that the future would show good results from its session there.

Adjourned *sine die* at 10.30 P.M.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT.

The following financial statement was submitted to the Conference:—

To the Executive Committee of the National Conference of Charities:

The undersigned, Treasurer of the Conference, herewith submits a summarized statement of his receipts and expenses since the adjournment of the Conference at St. Paul, in 1886:—

CASH RECEIPTS.

July 17 to Dec. 31, 1886.	By cash from sales,	\$374.57
Jan. 6, 1887.	By cash from State of Massachusetts,	79.69
" 6, "	" " " Pennsylvania,	112.50
" 10, "	" " " Rhode Island,	27.00
" 18, "	" " " New York,	100.00
" 21, "	" " " Michigan,	180.00
" 26, "	" " " Illinois,	180.00
" 31, "	" " " House of Refuge, Philadelphia,	28.13
Feb. 19, "	" " " State of Minnesota,	176.00
Mar. 19, "	" " " Wisconsin,	180.00
June 18, "	" " " Ohio,	50.00
June 20, "	" " Philadelphia Charity Organization Society,	22.50
Jan. 6 to July 14, 1887.	By cash from sales,	359.41
Total Receipts,		<u>\$1,869.80</u>

CASH PAYMENTS.

Jan. 6 to Mar. 31, 1887. To Geo. H. Ellis, Printer, namely:—

To printing, binding, and forwarding 2,000 copies of Proceedings of the Thirteenth Annual Conference,		\$1,488.83
July 19, 1887.	To printing blanks,	8.25
Dec. 6, 1886, to July 19, 1887.	Paid Mrs. I. C. Barrows, viz.:—	98.74
Travelling expenses of 1886,		\$43.00
Postage, expressage, etc.,		55.74
July 27, 1887.	To Mrs. Barrows, expenses of 1887 (advanced),	75.00
Apr. 6, 1887.	To expenses of reprinting Proceedings of 1874,	60.00
Dec. 4, 1886 to July 2, 1887.	To clerk hire, freight, postage, etc., paid by Treasurer,	32.64
Total Payments,		<u>\$1,763.46</u>
Balance, cash on hand,		<u>\$106.34</u>

There remains on hand, therefore, Aug. 1, 1887, the sum of \$106.34; and there is due from sundry persons to whom copies of the Proceedings have been sent, according to their subscriptions,

about \$100.00, the greater part of which will probably be paid. The sum of \$75.00 advanced to Mrs. Barrows is properly chargeable to the account of 1887-88, so that the net surplus of the year just closed will probably exceed \$250.00.

Respectfully submitted,

F. B. SANBORN, *Treasurer.*

Boston, Aug. 1, 1887.

Since the session of the Conference, the \$75.00 advanced to Mrs. Barrows has been repaid by the Local Committee at Omaha; and there has been received on account of sales of the Proceedings of 1886 and previous years the sum of \$33.02. There has been expended from the income properly belonging to 1886-87 the sum of \$23.50 for clerk hire and postage, so that the balance in hand Dec. 1, 1887, of the above account is \$190.86, of which \$180.00 has been deposited in the Middlesex Institutions for Savings, where it draws interest. There is still due on this account upwards of \$60.00, which is quite certain to be paid.

F. B. SANBORN, *Treasurer.*

Boston, Dec. 1, 1887.

LIST OF DELEGATES.*

California.

Dooley, Edmond T., Superintendent Boys' and Girls' Aid Society, San Francisco.

Colorado.

Hart, Very Rev. Dean, Denver.

Reed, Rev. Myron W., Denver.

* Sampson, Mrs. Wm. C., Matron State Industrial School, Golden.

* Sperry, Mrs. J. S., Manager Ladies' Benevolent Union, Pueblo.

Dakota.

* Archibald, Dr. O. W., Superintendent North Dakota Hospital for Insane, Jamestown.

* Cravens, Dr. J. F., Yankton.

Cravens, Mrs. J. F., Yankton.

* Holp, Rev. P. E., Sioux Falls.

Kimball, Mrs. F. T., Fargo.

* McBride, Rev. J. M., Aberdeen.

District of Columbia.

French, John R., Washington.

Illinois.

Bagby, Miss Lucy A., Recording Secretary Blessing Hospital and Free Reading-room, Quincy.

Boicourt, W. H., Trustee Southern Hospital for Insane, Golconda.

Bottom, James, Trustee Southern Hospital for Insane, Sparta.

Crosawell, J. T., President Trustees State Reform School, Pontiac.

De Motte, H. C., Superintendent Soldiers' Orphans' Home, Normal.

De Motte, Mrs. H. C., Matron Soldiers' Orphans' Home, Normal.

Dewey, Dr. Richard, Superintendent Eastern Hospital for Insane, Kankakee.

Finch, E. H., Trustee Southern Hospital for Insane, Anna.

Johnson, Wm. Alex., Secretary Charity Organization Society and American Educational Aid Association of Illinois, Chicago.

Prince, Rev. J. M. D., Foundlings' Home, Chicago.

Rowland, Miss Annie J., Corresponding Secretary Blessing Hospital, Quincy.

Scouller, Dr. J. D., Superintendent State Reform School, Pontiac.

Wines, Rev. Fred. H., Secretary State Board of Public Charities, Springfield.

Woods, Mrs. Helen M., Superintendent Erring Woman's Refuge for Reform, Chicago.

Iowa.

* Appleton, Miss Margaret, Trustee Iowa Industrial Schools, Sioux City.

Burt, Mrs. A. S., Glenwood.

Burt, Dr. A. S., Glenwood.

Dakars, Mrs. Anna E., Matron Christian Home Council Bluffs.

Frazer, Miss Ella, Glenwood.

Folsom, Moses, Chariton.

* Hunting, Rev. S. S., Prisoners' Aid Association, Des Moines.

* Hunting, Mrs. S. S., Representing Woman's Club, Des Moines.

Lemen, Rev. J. G., Manager Christian Home, Council Bluffs.

Lemen, Mrs. Florence, Matron Christian Home, Council Bluffs.

McLean, Miss Tattie, Instructor at Institute Feeble-minded Children, Glenwood.

McLean, Mrs. Wm., Audubon.

McLean, Miss Mattie, Teacher Iowa Institute for Feeble-minded Children, Glenwood.

Pierce, S. W., Superintendent State Orphans' Home, Davenport.

Pierce, Mrs. F. W., Matron State Orphans' Home, Davenport.

Powell, Dr. F. M., Iowa Institution for Feeble-minded Children, Glenwood.

* Savage, John C., M.D., Sioux City.

Indiana.

* Barnett, L. A., Trustee State Reform School for Boys, Danville.

Briggs, Howard, Trustee Institution for Blind, Greencastle.

Fletcher, Dr. W. B., Superintendent State Hospital for Insane, Indianapolis.

Kansas.

* Faulkner, C. E., Secretary Board Trustees State Charitable Institutions, Salina.

* Milner, Rev. D. C., Atchison.

Maryland.

Warner, Amos G., General Agent Charity Organization Society, Baltimore.

Massachusetts.

Barrows, Mrs. Isabel C., Official Reporter of the Conference, Boston.

Fisher, Dr. C. Irving, Superintendent State Almshouse, Tewksbury.

Hitchcock, Dr. Edward, Member of State Board of Lunacy and Charity, Amherst.

Parker, Miss Sarah, Massachusetts Indian Society, Boston.

Sanborn, F. B., State Inspector of Charities, Concord.

Sanborn, F. B., Jr., Concord.

Shurtleff, Hiram S., State Superintendent Outdoor Poor, Boston.

Michigan.

* Mower, T. Daily, Chief of Police, East Saginaw.

Post, Dr. James A., Secretary Associated Charities, Detroit.

* State or Territorial, commissioned by the Governor.

Post, Mrs. James A., Detroit.
 Storrs, L. C., Secretary State Board of Corrections and Charities, Lansing.
 Wheeler, John J., Member State Board of Corrections and Charities, East Saginaw.
 Woodward, W. A., Member Board of State Prison Inspectors, Owosso.

Minnesota.

* Ancker, Dr. Arthur B., Surgeon in charge City and County Hospital, St. Paul.
 * Brown, J. W., Superintendent State Reform School, St. Paul.
 Brown, Mrs. J. W., St. Paul.
 Cowie, G. G., Clerk State Board of Corrections and Charities, St. Paul.
 Dana, Rev. M. McG., D.D., Vice-President State Board of Corrections and Charities, St. Paul.
 Baker, Miss Laura, Teacher State School for Feeble-minded, Fairbairn.
 Hart, Rev. H. H., Secretary State Board of Corrections and Charities.
 * Hazard, George H., St. Paul.
 * Hasher, F. A., Manager State Reform School, Minneapolis.
 * Ingersoll, D. W., President Managers State Reform School, St. Paul.
 * Merrill, Galen A., Superintendent State School for Dependent Children, Owatonna.
 Merrill, Mrs. G. A., Owatonna.
 * Murray, William P., St. Paul.
 Murray, Mrs. W. P., St. Paul.
 * Schley, Miss Jessie, Superintendent Home for Young Girls, St. Paul.
 * Van Anda, Rev. C. A., D.D., Minneapolis.
 Vivian, Dr. G., Member of State Board of Corrections, Alexandria.
 Wells, H. R., Member State Board of Corrections and Charities, Preston.
 * Worthen, C. H., St. Paul.
 Worthen, Mrs. C. H., St. Paul.
 * Wright, Isaac P., Treasurer Board of Control, St. Paul.

Nebraska.

* Bittenbender, Mrs. Ada C., Lincoln.
 Broatch, W. J., Omaha.
 Broatch, Mrs. W. J., Omaha.
 Burlingame, Mr., Omaha.
 Burlingame, Mrs., Omaha.
 Chandler, S. Ravenna.
 * Chase, Hon. Champion S., LL.D., President Nebraska Humane Society, Omaha.
 Chase, Clement, Omaha.
 Chapin, Rev. E. H., Lincoln.
 * Clark, Mrs. G. W., Omaha.
 * Colby, Mrs. C. B., Beatrice.
 * Cooley, Mrs. E. M. J., W. C. T. U., Lincoln.
 Copeland, Rev. W. E., Nebraska Humane Society, Omaha.
 Copeland, Mrs. W. E., Omaha.
 Croft, W. R., Omaha.
 Crane, Rev. H. C., Omaha.
 * Davis, Mrs. A. M., Lincoln.
 * Davis, D. D., Pawnee City.
 Dinsmore, Dr. C. M.
 * Dinsmore, Mrs. O. C., President of Woman's Associate Charities, Omaha.
 Doherty, Rev. Robt., Omaha.
 Donahue, Mrs. A., Omaha.
 Ebright, Mrs. Fannie J., Home for the Friendless, Lincoln.
 Edson, E. H., North Platte.
 Edson, Ida E., Omaha.
 Elliott, Mrs. M. A., Omaha.
 Gilmore, Mrs. F. B., Omaha.
 * Gillespie, J. A., Superintendent Deaf and Dumb Institute, Omaha.
 Gillespie, Mrs. J. A., Omaha.
 Groff, Judge Lewis A., Omaha.
 Groff, Mrs. Lewis A., Omaha.
 Haller, Mrs. F. L., Omaha.
 Hamblin, C. H., Tekama.
 Hamblin, Mrs. C. H., Tekama.
 * Hammond, John, Commandant Soldiers' Home, Grand Island.
 * Hasson, M. D. D. W., Ponca.
 Hinsdale, Mrs. C. A., Tecumseh.
 * Holmes, Mrs. Jennie F., President Nebraska W. C. T. U., Tecumseh.
 * Howe, P. W., Chaplain Penitentiary, Lincoln.
 Howard, Mr., Omaha.
 * Heyers, R. W., Warden Penitentiary, Lincoln.
 Jardin, Mrs. J. B., City Mission, Omaha.
 Joslyn, Mrs. G. A., Omaha.
 * Kelley, E. A., M.D., Norfolk Hospital for Insane, Norfolk.
 Kennedy, Alf. C., City Mission, Omaha.
 Kimball, T. L., Omaha.
 Kimball, Mrs. T. L., Omaha.
 * Knapp, W. M., M.D., Superintendent Nebraska Hospital for Insane, Lincoln.
 Laing, J. C., Omaha.
 Langtry, Mrs. Mary M., Omaha.
 * Latta, Mrs. J. P., Tekamah.
 * Lemon, Rev. De T., Omaha.
 * Lewis, Rev. J. C., Fremont.
 * Luinger, Caroline M., Omaha.
 MacMurphy, Mrs. H. L., Omaha.
 MacMurphy, John, Omaha.
 Manly, Mrs. K. C., President State Association Home for the Friendless, Lincoln.
 Marshall, Captain, Omaha.
 Marshall, Mrs., Omaha.
 * Martin, George W., M.D., Long Pine.
 McDonald, John, Omaha.
 Millard, Alford, Omaha.
 O'Giley, David, Omaha.
 * Parmalee, J. B., Principal Institute for Blind, Nebraska City.
 Parsell, Dr., Omaha.
 Parsell, Mrs. Dr., Omaha.
 Pearson, F. W., Omaha.
 Pearson, Mrs. Ella A., W. C. T. U., Omaha.
 Perine, P. L., Omaha.
 Perine, Mrs. P. L., Omaha.
 Riley, J. E., Omaha.
 Roe, Rev. John P., Omaha.
 Rogers, Miss Lucia A., Omaha.
 Rosewater, Edward, Omaha.
 * Russell, Mrs. Lucinda, Treasurer Woman's State Board of Charities and Correction, Tecumseh.
 Saunders, Alvin, Omaha.
 Savidge, Rev. C. W., Omaha.
 Sawyer, A. J., Lincoln.
 Sawyer, Mrs. A. J., Lincoln.
 * Slaughter, Mrs. A. B., Superintendent Home for the Friendless, Lincoln.
 Smith, Sarah M., Lincoln.
 * Stebbins, C. S., Local Gommittee, Omaha.
 * Stinson, Liela, Kearney.
 * Strong, H. L., Kearney.
 * Tate, J. G., Shelton.
 Thayer, Gov. John M.
 Thurston, J. M., Chairman Committee on Entertainment, Omaha.
 Thurston, Mrs. J. M., Nebraska Humane Society, Omaha.
 Van Court, Mrs. A. D., Omaha.
 Wakeley, Mrs. Judge E., Omaha.
 Wakeley, Judge E., Omaha.
 Wallace, Mrs. M. G., Local Committee, Omaha.
 Wallace, W. W., Local Committee, Omaha.

Welshans, Mrs. W. J., Omaha.
 *Whitmore, W. G., Valley.
 Whitmore, Mrs. W. G., Valley.
 *Williams, Rev. George, Grand Island.
 Williams, Rev. John F., Omaha.
 Windsor, Mrs. S. H., Matron Brownell Hall, Omaha.
 Woodburn, J. S., Instructor Deaf and Dumb Institute, Omaha.
 Woolworth, J. M., Omaha.
 Woolworth, Mrs. J. M., Omaha.
 Yates, H. W., Omaha.
 *Yocum, Alice J., Hastings.
 *Yocum, Anna P., Hastings.

New York.

Fulton, Levi S., Superintendent State Industrial School, Rochester.
 Hoyt, Dr. Charles S., Secretary State Board of Charities, Albany.
 Kellogg, Charles D., Secretary Charity Organization Society, New York.
 Letchworth, Wm. P., President State Board of Charities, Portageville.
 Rosenau, Nathaniel S., Secretary Charity Organization Society, Buffalo.
 Skinner, John W., Children's Aid Society, New York.
 *Taylor, Dr. Horace C., Delegate State Convention Superintendents of the Poor, Brocton.

Ohio.

Ackles, Miss Charlotte, Superintendent of Associated Charities, Columbus.
 Brinkerhoff, Roeliff, Member Board of State Charities, Mansfield.
 Byers, Dr. A. G., Secretary Board of State Charities, Columbus.
 Byers, Miss Bertha, Columbus.
 Gorgas, Mrs. Lucretia V., Matron Children's Home, Defiance.
 Oliver, Henry, Superintendent House of Refuge, Cincinnati.
 Webb, J., Jr., Director House of Refuge, Cincinnati.
 White, Albert S., Superintendent Franklin County Children's Home, Columbus.

Oregon.

*Hill, Rev. Robert W., D.D., Salem.
 *Spaulding, Miss Helen F., Boys' and Girls' Aid Society, Portland.

Pennsylvania.

Biddle, Cadwalader, Secretary State Board of Public Charities, Philadelphia.
 Biddle, James C., Jr., Philadelphia.
 Garrett, Philip C., President State Board of Charities, Logan P. O., Philadelphia.
 Paist, Mahlon K., Philadelphia.
 Paist, Harriet W., Pennsylvania Prison Society, Philadelphia.
 Sawyer, W. J., Member State Board of Public Charities, Allegheny City.

Vermont.

King, Miss Ada R., Woodstock.

Wisconsin.

Baker, Thomas, Superintendent of Poor and County Insane, Prairie du Sac.
 Elmore, Hon. Andrew E., President State Board of Charities and Reform, Fort Howard.
 Fairbanks, Mrs. E. B., Member State Board of Charities and Reform, Milwaukee.
 Giles, Hon. H. H., State Board of Charities and Reform, Madison.
 Giles, Miss Ella, Madison.
 *Hiles, Mrs. O. J., Milwaukee.
 *Holden, E. O., Superintendent of County Poor and County Insane, Baraboo.
 *Hoyt, Mrs. L. W., Madison.
 Hunt, Harriet C., Superintendent Wisconsin Industrial School for Girls, Milwaukee.
 Scanlon, T. F., Superintendent of Poor, Lyndon Station.
 Showalter, R. R., Superintendent Grant County Asylum, Lancaster.
 Smith, Nicholas, Member State Board of Supervision, Janesville.
 Vivian, Dr. John H., Member State Board of Charities and Reform, Mineral Point.
 Vivian, Mrs. J. H., Mineral Point.
 Wright, A. O., Secretary State Board of Charities and Reform, Madison.

Wyoming.

*Sampson, W. C. Superintendent Colorado State Reform School, commissioned by the Governor to represent Wyoming.

OFFICERS

OF THE

Conference of Charities and Correction,

FOR 1887.

President.

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